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Contributions to Comparative Philippine Grammar. By FRANK R. BLAKE, Ph.D., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

INTRODUCTION.

The languages of the Philippine Islands so far as they are known² form a closely related group of tongues belonging to the great Malayo-Polynesian family, which embraces the languages of practically all the islands between the east coast of Asia and the west coast of America south of 30° north latitude, with the exception of Papua and Australia, and also includes the languages spoken on the Malay peninsula at the south-east-ern extremity of the continent of Asia, and on the island of Madagascar off the coast of Africa.

¹ In the spelling of Philippine words in this paper, k is used instead of the older c and qu; g instead of gu before i, e; w instead of consonantal u before a vowel; i for initial y before a consonant; but with these exceptions it has seemed best to retain the traditional orthography. As in most of the languages the accent of words is not given, the accent marks have been omitted throughout, except where they indicate a difference in meaning, and in the case of a and a in Tagalog, which indicate a final glottal catch (cf. below, p. 335). For the reformed spelling in Tagalog, cf. the foot-notes to my paper, The Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog, in this volume of the Journal.

² The languages of the Negritos, the diminutive black people who live in scattered tribes in the interior mountain ranges of the larger islands, and who are probably the remnant of the aborigines of the Archipelago, are said by certain Spanish authorities (cf. El Archipiélago Filipino, Washington, 1900, vol. 1, p. 229; Lacalle y Sánchez, Tierras y razas del archipiélago filipino, Manila, 1886, p. 246) to be entirely different from those of the other inhabitants of the islands. These authorities state furthermore that the idioms of all the Negritos practically constitute one language, and that this language is of monsyllabic structure as opposed to the dissyllabic structure of the Malay tongues. However true this may have been originally, at the present day it is certain that those Negrito dialects about which anything is known are very similar in vocabulary and grammatical structure to the other Philippine languages. It is probable, however, that the Negritos have in such cases more or less completely adopted the languages of the neighboring Malay tribes (cf. A. B. Meyer, Die Philippinen, II. Negritos, Dresden, 1893 (Königl. ethnogr. Museum zu Dresden, ix), p. 36 ff.

It is perhaps useless to hazard any conjectures as to the primitive seat of the Malayo-Polynesians, whose ancient history is practically a sealed book, but it seems most likely that the cradle of the race was on some of the numerous islands which it now inhabits, possibly some of the large islands in the vicinity of the Malay peninsula.

From this birthplace the ancient Malayo-Polynesians, forced doubtless by the increase in population, must have spread out in a series of waves or swarms, just as in the case of the primitive Indo-Europeans and Semites. Crossing at first by means of their canoes over the comparatively short stretches of sea between their home and the neighboring islands, they gradually pushed further and further out into the unknown, passing from island to island until they had occupied almost all the available land space of the Pacific. Some of the islands they probably found unoccupied, in others they must have come in contact with an inferior black race similar to that inhabiting Papua and Australia, as is shown by the remnants of this race which are found pushed back into the interior mountain ranges of some of the larger islands, notably the Philippines.

The peopling of the Malayo-Polynesian territory probably took place in three great waves or series of waves, to which correspond the three grand divisions of tha Malayo-Polynesian languages, viz., the Polynesian, the Melanesian, and the Malay. The 180th meridian forms approximately the boundary between the Polynesian and Melanesian divisions from the north as far south as the latitude of the Fiji islands, practically all the languages spoken east of this line being Polynesian. Further south the line bends to the west, the native language of New Zealand belonging to the Polynesian division. West of the dividing line the Melanesian division extends in a north-westerly direction from the Fiji islands on the south, including the languages of the principal islands of Melanesia and Micronesia. The Malay embraces the languages of the Malay peninsula, the East India islands, the Philippines, and Madagascar.

The Philippine languages, then, may be more accurately defined as a subdivision of the Malay branch of the Malayo-Polynesian family of speech.

The estimated number of Philippine languages varies according to the different authorities. The well known Spanish Fili-

pinologist W. E. Retana, in his latest bibliographical work on the Philippines, enumerates twenty-five different idioms; the great Philippine specialist, Professor Ferdinand Blumentritt, of Leitmeritz in Bohemia, in his brief survey of Philippine races and languages, mentions at least thirty; while in an encyclopediac work on the Philippines prepared by the Jesuits, El Archipiélago Filipino, the number given exceeds fifty.

Of many of the languages enumerated in the larger estimates, practically nothing is known but the name, and it is quite possible that many of these names are simply alternate designations of the better known languages, or, at most, designations of some slightly variant dialect. Beginning at the extreme north of the Archipelago, the languages about which anything definite is known are as follows.

Batan is the language of the Batan and Babuyan islands to the north of Luzon.

On the island of Luzon, Tagalog, the most important and best known of the Philippine languages, is spoken from coast to coast, in the middle region of the island, in the latitude of Manila Bay. On the west coast its territory does not extend north of the Bay, but on the east it reaches as far north as the province of Isabela, the most northerly but one of the provinces on the east coast, in which is situated the town of Palanan. where Aguinaldo was captured by General Funston. On the south and south-east it extends some distance down into what might be called the tail of Luzon, trenching on the domain of Bikol, which occupies the remainder of the southern part of the island. In the region north and west of the Tagalog district are spoken a number of languages. Ibanag prevails in the northeast, in the valley of the Cagayan river, the greatest tobaccoraising district in the island; Ilokan occupies the north and west coasts, extending as far south as the gulf of Lingayen, between which and the Bay of Manila are found Pangasinan, Tino or Zambal, and Pampangan. In the mountainous district of the interior are spoken the various Igorot dialects, among which

¹ Catálago abreviado de la biblioteca filipina, Madrid, 1898.

² Cf. List of Native Tribes of the Philippines and of the languages spoken by them, trans. by O. T. Mason in Report of Smithsonian Inst. for the year ending June, 1899; Washington, 1901, pp. 527-547.

³ Washington, 1900; cf. vol. 1, pp. 1-148 passim.

it is probable that Gaddán, Ginaán, Ilongot, and Isinay are to be classed.¹

On the Bisayan islands, which lie between Luzon and Mindanao, and on the north and east coasts of the latter island, Bisayan is spoken in a number of different dialects.²

Sulu is used by the Moros of the Sulu subarchipelago, which extends from the western extremity of Mindanao towards Borneo. The Moro tribes of Mindanao, which occupy parts of the west and southwest of that island, speak two almost identical dialects, Magindanao and Malanao. Of the numerous other idioms reported as spoken on Mindanao, we know practically nothing about any except Bagobo, which is found near the great volcano Apo in the south-eastern part of the island, and Tiruray, which occupies a district near the Moro territory in the south-west.

The island of Mindoro, which lies to the south of Luzon and west of the Bisayas, forms the domain of Mangyan, about which, so far as I know, nothing has yet been published. The principal language of the Calamianes and the long narrow island of Palawan, which form a chain stretching from Mindoro to the south-west towards Borneo, is Tagbanwa, of which the idioms of Agutaya and Cuyo, two small islands between Palawan and the Bisayas, are perhaps simply dialects, though they are usually given as distinct languages.

The tribes that speak these languages fall into three general groups according to their religion. Those that speak Batan, Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, Zambal, Pampangan, Tagalog, Bikol, Bisayan, Agutayan,² and Koyuvan³ are Christians; the Sulus, Magindanaos, and Malanaos are Mohammedans; while the remaining tribes mentioned are still pagans.

Three different alphabets are in use in the Archipelago, viz.

1) that of the pagan Tagbanwas and Mangyans; 2) that of the

¹ Cf. Report of the Philippine Commission, 1903, Part 2, p. 780.

² Cf. my paper The Bisayan Dialects, JAOS. xxvi, 1905, pp. 120-136.

³ Cf. Blumentritt, *The Philippines*, trans. by D. J. Doherty, Chicago, 1900, p. 24.

⁴ The Mangyan alphabet, however, is treated in the following, viz., Blumentritt, Die Mangianenschrift von Mindoro, Braunschweig, 1896; A. B. Meyer, Schadenberg and Foy, Die Mangianenschrift von Mindoro, Berlin, 1895=Abhandl. u. Berichte d. Königl. zoolog. u. anthropolethnogr, Museums zu Dresden, No. 15.

Mohammedan tribes, the Arabic alphabet with some additional signs to denote some peculiar native sounds; 3) the Roman alphabet introduced by the Spaniards, in which all the languages of the Christian tribes, and all those of pagan tribes which have been reduced to writing by Spanish missionaries, are written.

At the time of the Spanish conquest, the principal of the now Christian tribes possessed alphabets that are practically identical with those of the Tagbanwas and Mangyans, and it is probable that the Mohammedan tribes originally had similar alphabets. These ancient alphabets have in both cases been superseded by that of the race whose religion has been adopted. In the Mohammedan tribes no trace of them has been preserved, and their use in the Christian tribes seems to have died out about the middle of the eighteenth century.

The archetype of these natives alphabets seems to have been of Indian origin. As in the Indian alphabets, every consonantal character without addition represents the consonant followed by the vowel a, the other vowels being indicated by secondary marks. There was no way of expressing a consonant without a following vowel, hence such a consonant was omitted in writing.⁴

¹ Similarly there are some additional characters in the Arabic alphabet adapted to Malay, Persian, Turkish, and Hindustani, cf. Marsden, A Gram. of the Malayan Language, London, 1812, p. 1 f.; Salemann und Shukovski, Persische Gram. Berlin, 1889, § 1; A. Müller, Türkische Gram. Berlin, 1889, § 5; Vinson, Manuel de la langue hindoustani, Paris 1899, p. 5. In like manner the Amharic alphabet is the Ethiopic with some additional characters to denote some peculiar Amharic sounds, while Coptic is written in the Greek uncial alphabet with seven additional characters borrowed from Demotic: cf. Praetorius, Die Amharische Sprache, Halle, 1879, p. 17, § 1 a; Steindorff, Koptische Grammatik, 2^{te} ed., Berlin, 1904, p. 5.

 $^{^2}$ Cf. Marcillo y Martin, $\it Estudio$ de los antiguos alfabetos filipinos, Malabón, 1895.

³ Totanes in his Arte de la lengua tagala, Sampaloc, 1745, states that at his time very few natives could read this alphabet, and that hardly any could write it: cf. the later edition, Binondo, 1865, p. 1.

⁴ This defect was remedied by the Austin friar Francisco Lopez, who in his Ilokan catechism (1621) written in Tagalog characters made use of a diacritical mark, similar in its nature to the Sanskrit *virāma* or Arabic sukûn, to indicate a consonant standing alone; cf. El Archipiélago Filipino, vol. 1, p. 227.

The Roman alphabet, which is used in writing the native languages, was formerly conformed to the peculiarities of Spanish orthography, but lately a number of improvements in spelling have been introduced, the most important being the use of k for c and qu, and w for consonantal u.

The Philippine languages have been influenced to some extent, principally in their vocabulary, by the languages with which they have come in contact. The vocabularies of some of them, notably Tagalog and Bisayan, contain, in common with the other Malayan languages, a number of Sanskrit words, e. g., Tagalog and Bisayan basa 'read' (San. bhāṣā 'languages'), halaga 'price' (San. argha).

The languages spoken by the Mohammedan tribes, the most important of which are Magindanao and Sulu, contain a number of Arabic words, e. g., Magindanao and Sulu dunia 'world' (Arabic منيا dunia), Mag. alatala, alahutaala, Sulu allahtaala 'God' (Arabic الله تعالى allahu ta'ala 'God, may he be exalted').

The Christian tribes have adopted a considerable body of Spanish terms, e. g., Dios 'God,' pade, pare 'priest.'

A few Chinese words are found in Tagalog as designations of things specifically Chinese, e. g., cha or sa 'tea' (Chin. tcha), miki 'a kind of vermicelli' (Chin. mi-ki).

At present the various languages are being subjected to the influence of English, and English words will probably be more or less extensively borrowed. Already in the northern part of Luzon the English phrase 'no got' is in common use.²

Spanish, besides influencing to some degree the native vocabularies, has also left its mark in a few cases on the grammatical construction. In Tagalog, for example, the cumbersome native method of coördinating pronouns and numerals, as in *kami niya* 'he and I' literally 'his we,' has been more or less completely

¹ Cf. H. Kern, Sanskritische woorden in het Tagala, Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië, 4^{de} Volg., D. 4, 1880, pp. 535-564; Sanskritische woorden in het Bisaya, ibid., 4^{de} Volg., D. 5, pp. 128-135; T. H. Pardo de Tavera, El Sanscrito en la lengua agala, Paris, 1887: cf. also my paper, Sanskrit Loan-words in Tagalog, JHU. Circs., No. 163, pp. 63-65.

 $^{^2}$ Cf. A. E. Jenks, \bar{The} Bontoc Igorot, Manila, 1905 (=Ethnological Survey Publications, vol. 1), p. 158.

driven from the field by the simpler Spanish construction with copulative conjunction.

The materials for the study of the Philippine languages consist of texts, collections of conversational phrases, grammars, dictionaries, and vocabularies. Grammars and dictionaries of some sort exist of most of the languages mentioned; the others must be studied without these helps. The languages that are included in the following comparative studies are, viz., Tagalog, Bisayan (Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, Harayan), Bikol, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Igorot (Nabaloi, Bontok), Ibanag, Batan, Magindanao, Sulu, and Bagobo.²

GENERAL FEATURES.

The most important characteristics which the Philippine languages possess in common are the following.

Words are made up of roots and particles. Roots are mainly dissyllabic and indicate nominal or verbal ideas; practically all

¹ Cf. W. G. Seiple, *The Tagalog Numerals*, JHU. Circs., No. 163, pp. 79-81.

² The principal grammars and dictionaries employed are, viz.: Totanes, Arte de la lengua tagala, reimpr., Binondo, 1865; Campomanes, Lecciones de gramática hispano-tagala, Manila, 1872; Minguella, Ensayo de gramatica hispano-tagala, Manila, 1878; Noceda, Vocabulario de la lengua tagala, 3ª ed., Manila, 1860; Zueco, Metodo del Dr. Ollendorff adaptado al bisaya, Manila, 1871; Bermejo, Arte conpendiado de la lengua cebuana, 2ª ed., Tambobong, 1894; Mentrida and Aparicio, Arte de la lengua bisaya-hiligayna, Tambobong, 1894; Lozano, Cursos de lengua panayana, Manila, 1876; Figueroa, Arte del idioma visaya de Samar y Leyte, 2ª ed., Binondo, 1872; Encarnación, Diccionario bisaya-español, 3ª ed., Manila, 1885; San Augustín and Crespo, Arte de la lengua bicol, Manila, 1879; Bergaño, Arte de la lengua pampanga, 2ª ed. (?), Sampaloc, 1736; Pellicer, Arte de la lengua pangasinana. reimpr., Manila, 1862; Cosgaya, Diccionario pangasinan-español, Manila, 1865; Naves, Gramática hispano-ilocana, 2ª ed., Tambobong, 1892; Carro, Vocabulario iloco-español, 2ª ed., Manila, 1888; Sheerer. The Nabaloi dialect, Ethnological Survey Publications, vol. II, Part II, pp. 95-171, Manila, 1905; Jenks, The Bontoc Igorot, vol. 1 of series cited, Manila, 1905, pp, 227-248; De Cuevas, Arte nuevo de la lengua ybanág. 2ª ed., Manila, 1854; (Batan grammar) cf. Retana, Archivo del bibliófilo filipina, vol. II, Madrid, 1896, pp. xxxviii-xl; Juanmarti, Gramática de la lengua de Magindanao, Manila, 1892; Cowie, English-Sulu-Malay Vocabulary, London, 1893; Gisbert, Diccionario bagobo-español and español-bagobo, Manila, 1892,

may be used unchanged as significant words; e. g., Tagalog tawo 'man,' ibig 'wish, want.' Particles are mainly monosyllabic, some being independent words indicating pronominal and adverbial ideas, others being used only in combination with roots to form derivative nouns and verbs, e. g., Tagalog ka 'thou,' na 'now, already,' mag, a prefix used to form active verbs, e. g., mag-larô 'play, sport' from larô. From these ultimate components of the language other words are formed:

- a) by reduplication of the root, e. g., Tagalog susulat 'will write' from sulat 'write;'
- b) by the combination of two or more particles, e. g., Tagalog na-man 'also,' from na 'now' and man 'even;'
- c) by the combination of the root with one or more derivative particles, e. g., Tagalog s-um-ulat 'write (imper. and inf.), s-in-ulat-an 'was written on,' from sulat.

These languages are practically non-inflectional, there being no inflection except in some few instances in the pronoun and the verb, the variation being regularly at the beginning of the word. Pronouns are varied to express case, as a general thing three cases being distinguished, a nominative, a so-called genitive that is also the case of the agent and instrument, a so-called oblique that is used to represent all locative relations, place where, place whither, and place whence, including the dative and ablative of persons; e. g., Tagalog ito 'this,' nito 'of this,' dito 'in or to this.' In the verb differences in voice, mode and tense may be indicated by change of the initial sound of a form, e. g., Tagalog mag-laró 'to play,' naglaró 'played,' paglaró, passive stem of same verb, where m indicates the infinitive, n the preterit, and p the passive.

There is no formal distinction of gender even in the case of the pronouns of the third person. Whenever it is necessary to indicate the gender expressly, words meaning 'male' and 'female' must be used in connection with the epicene noun or pronoun, e. g., from Tagalog kabayo 'horse,' kabayo-ng lalaki 'stallion,' and kabayo-ng babayi 'mare;' except in the case of certain nouns of relationship, where different words are used to express difference in gender, e. g., Tagalog ama 'father,' ina 'mother.' Even with these nouns the same word often denotes a relative of either sex, and the words for 'male' and 'female' must be

used when it is necessary to avoid ambiguity, e. g., Tagalog anak 'son or daughter,' anak na lalaki 'son,' anak na babayi 'daughter."

These languages possess what might be called personal articles, i. e., words of a particular nature which are placed before names of persons to denote case, e. g., Tagalog si Pedro 'Pedro,' ni Pedro 'of Pedro.' Many of them also have an article, the so-called inclusive article, which is placed before the name of a person to denote that with him are included those who are associated with him in any way, as his companions, friends, family, etc., e. g., Tagalog sina Pedro 'Pedro and his associates.'

The pronoun of the first person plural has regularly two forms, one of which includes, while the other excludes, the person addressed; for example, a Tagalog might say to a Spainard tayo-ng kristiano 'we Christians,' using the inclusive 'we' tayo, but kami-ng Tagalog 'we Tagalogs,' using the exclusive 'we' kami. ³

An extensive use is made of certain particles called ligatures to connect words, phrases, and sentences which stand to one another in the relation of modifier and modified. They stand for example between adjective and noun; verb and adverb; noun or verb and dependent clause, in this case playing the part

¹ These remarks apply also to the expression of gender in Malay, (cf. Marsden, op. cit. p. 29; Crawfurd, A Gram. and Dict. of the Malay Lang., London, 1852, vol. i, p. 10; Seidel, Praktische Gram. der Malayischen Sprache, Hartleben's Verlag [Wien, Pest, Leipzig], p. 18); and in Javanese (cf. Bohatta, Praktische Gram. der Javanischen Sprache, Hartleben's Verl.), p. 31.

²Personal articles are found also in Malay and Madagascan; in Malay it is si, cf. Favre, Grammaire de la langue malaise, Vienne, 1876, pp. 59, 92. The principal ones in Madagascan are i and ra, cf. Brandstetter, Tagalen und Madagassen, Luzern, 1902, p. 79 f.; Parker, A concise Gram. of the Malagasy Language, London, 1883, p. 47.

³ The same distinction is made also in Malay between *kita* (inc.) and *kami* (exc.), and in Madagascan between *isika* (inc.) and *izahay* (exc.); cf. Marsden, *op. cit.*, p. 45; Parker, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

⁴ Traces of similar particles are found in Madagascan and some other Malayan languages, cf. Brandstetter, $Tag.\ u.\ Mad.$, pp. 76, 83. In languages of other families, similar particles are the connective i in modern Persian (cf. Salemann and Shukovski, $op.\ cit.$, p. 30, § 16), and the genitive sign n in Egyptian and Coptic (cf. Ermann, Ägyptische Gram. 2^{te} Aufl., Berlin, 1902, p. 64; Steindorff, $op.\ cit.$, pp. 79 f., 83).

of relative pronouns and subordinate conjunctions; e. g., in Tagalog tawo-ng mabuti 'good man,' mabuti-ng ginawd 'well done,' tawo-ng minamahal nang lahat 'a man who is esteemed by all,' the modifier and modified are connected by the ligature -ng.

The ideas of 'to be in a place' and 'to have' are not expressed by verbs, but by particles which may be called quasi-verbs, in Tagalog na, may, e. g., ang libro'y na sa lamesa 'the book is on the table;' ito-ng tawo'y may asawa 'this man has a wife.'

Verbs are generally made by combining derivative particles with the root. These particles are very numerous and their uses very various. By means of them voice, mode, and tense are distinguished, and also a variety of other modifiations of the verbal meaning, such as the causative, emphatic, etc.; for example from a root aral in Tagalog are formed,

um-aral 'teach.' magsi-aral 'teach (of many).'
mag-aral 'study, learn.' magpaka-aral 'teach earnestly.'
mang-aral 'preach.' ungm-aral 'taught.'
maka-aral 'be able to teach.' nag-aral 'learned.'
magpa-aral 'order, command aralin 'be taught.'
to teach.' inaral 'was taught.'
maki-aral 'join with someone pag-aral-in 'be studied.'
in teaching.' pinag-aral 'was studied.'

pa-aral 'ask for instruction.'

Perhaps the most salient feature of these languages is the prevailing use of the passive construction, active verbs not being used except when the agent is the most emphatic element of the sentence; for example in Tagalog in the sentence 'he is reading a book,' 'he' is more emphatic than the indefinite 'book,' hence the active is used, viz., siya'y bungmabasa nang libro, while in the sentence 'he is reading this book' the definite object is ordinarily more emphatic than the agent, hence the passive is employed, e. g., ito-ng libro'y binabasa niya.'

etc., etc.

In the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the Philippine languages any complete classification and subdivision is of course impracticable, but it is possible nevertheless to distinguish certain general groups.

¹ Cf. my paper, The Expression of Case by the Verb in Tagalog, in this volume of the Journal, pp. 183-189.

The most important of these is a Northern Group, including the principal languages of North Luzon and the islands to the north, viz., Batan, Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, and the Igorot dialects as far as they are known; and a Central Group, including Tagalog, Bikol, and Bisayan. Between these two groups lies Pampangan, which partakes in a measure of the peculiarities of both. In the south the dialects of the Magindanao and Malanao Moros belong together, while Bagobo and Sulu occupy isolated positions, Sulu being more like Malay than any of the other Philippine languages. The principal phonetic difference between the languages of the Northern and Central Groups is that the former have no h sound (cf. below, p. 335).

The principal differences in grammatical structure between these two groups are the following.

In general the languages of the Northern Group form their plural by reduplication of the singular, e. g., Ilok. balay 'house,' balbalay 'houses.' The languages of the Central Group employ a special prepositive particle manĝa for this purpose, e. g., Tag. bahay 'house,' manĝa bahay 'houses.'

The Northern Group possesses the ligature a which is not found as such in the Central Group, e. g., Ilok. naimbag a tao 'good man.'

In the Northern Group the personal pronouns have in general two forms of the nominative, an emphatic and a non-emphatic form; for example, 'I' in Ilokan is represented by siak when emphatic, by ak when not emphatic. In the Central Group as a regular thing only one form of the nominative is employed, e. g., Tag. ako 'I.' On the other hand, in the Central Group these pronouns have both a prepositive and a postpositive form of the genitive, e. g., Tag. aking ulo and ulo ko 'my head;' while in the Northern Group only postpositive forms are found, e. g., Ilok. balay ko 'my house,' aso-k 'my dog.'

As a general thing the languages of the Northern Group distinguish only two tense forms of the verb, viz., a preterit and a form to represent all the other tenses, e. g., Ilok., mangaramid, pret. nangaramid 'do, make.' In the Central Group as many as four tense and mode forms are distinguished, viz., a modal, used for infinitive, imperative, and subjunctive; a future; a preterit; and a present: e. g., Tag.,

maglaró 'to play.' naglaró 'did play.' naglalaró 'will play.' naglalaró 'is playing.'

The languages of the Central Group possess three passive forms, by means of which not only the direct object of the verbal action may be made subject, but also words standing in other case relations of the verb, such as dative, instrumental, ablative, etc.¹

In the Northern Group this function of the verb has been still further developed, the languages of this group possessing not only three passives, but also a number of other passive verbal forms called verbals, made on the basis of the verbal noun of action with prefixed pag, pan, etc. These take the place to some extent of the *i* and an passives of the Central Group. Examples of these forms in Ilokan are,

daytoy ti pagpunas-mo kadagiti pinggan 'wash the plates with this (this the washing-instrument thine to the plates).'

ania nga oras ti panagmisa ti pare 'at what hour does the priest celebrate mass (what hour the mass-celebrating-time of the priest)?'

asin ti pagsurataiyo (<*an-yo)² 'to whom are you writing (who the writing-aim yours)?'

Pampangan, which, as was stated above, partakes in a measure of the peculiarities of both the Northern and Central Groups, agrees with the Northern Group in not having the consonant h, and in possessing the ligature a, both emphatic and nonemphatic forms of the nominative, and exclusively postpositive genitive forms of the personal pronouns; but with the Central in possessing more than two tense and mode forms of the verb, viz., future, present, and preterit, and in the absence of the verbals which are so characteristic of the languages of the Northern Group. The plural of the noun is indicated by a special form of the article as often in Ilokan, e. g., ing tawo 'the man,' ding tawo 'the men,' except in the vocative, where it is denoted by prepositive manga, e. g., manga tawo, as in the Central Group. A special characteristic of Pampangan is the large number of forms which the personal pronouns have in the genitive, e. g., under various conditions 'mine' is ko, koo, ke, kee, or da; 'his,' no, noo, ne, nee, or na.

¹ Cf. my paper The Express. of Case by the Verb, cited above.

² In Ilokan the passive endings en and an + the genitive yo 'you (pl.)' give eiyo, aiyo. The phonetics of the process are not entirely clear. The spelling may represent an assimilation of n to y, or perhaps a nasalization of the yowels e and a.

Magindanao seems to be more closely related to the Central Group than to the Northern, forming the plural of its nouns with $man\~ga$, and making three tense and mode forms, viz., present, preterite, and imperative, e. g., sumulat 'writes,' sinumulat 'wrote,' sulat or panulat 'write (imperative).' It is, however, apparently without h, and possesses the ligature a like the languages of the Northern Group. The most characteristic peculiarity of this language are the forms of the personal pronouns with prefixed or infixed l element (cf. below, p. 372), e. g., laki, salaki 'my,' salkitanu, lekitanu 'we.'

Sulu, like Malay, possesses in the declension of its noun no special plural form or plural particle, and forms its tense by means of auxiliaries, e. g., $t\bar{o}g$ na aku 'I sleep,' bakas aku $mat\bar{o}g$ 'I have slept.' The ligature, which is so characteristic of all the other Philippine languages, is here comparatively little used.

NOTES ON PHONOLOGY.1

Original Philippine Sounds.

From a comparison of representative words in the various languages it is evident that the primitive Philippine language possessed the following sounds, viz.,

Cf. the following comparative list of words in the principal Philippine languages.

	'road'	'moon'	'drink'	'cook'	'five'	'eight'
Tag.	daan	buwan	inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walo
Bis.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Bik.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walo
Pamp.	dalan	bulan	inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walo
Pang.	\mathbf{dalan}	bulan	inum	luto	lima	walo
Ilok.	\mathbf{dalan}	bulan	inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walo
Iban.	dalan	tulan	inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walu
Mag.	lalan		inum	luto	$_{ m lima}$	walu
Sulu	\mathbf{dan}	bulan	hinom	lutoh	lima	walu

¹ In general the vowels of Philippine words have the Italian pronunciation; the consonants are to be pronounced as in English unless otherwise stated.

² Written $n\tilde{g}$ when it stands at the beginning of a syllable.

	per. art.	'sickness'	'eat'	'sail'	'heaven'
Tag.	si	sakit	kain	layag	langit
Bis.	si	sakit	kaon	layag	lanĝit
Bik.	si		kan	lauag	lanĝit
Pamp.		\mathbf{sakit}	kan	layag	
Pang.	si	sakit	kan	layag	
Ilok.	. si	\mathbf{sakit}	kan	layag	lanĝit
Iban.	\mathbf{si}	takit	kan	layag	lanĝit
Mag.	si	sakit	kan	layag	lanĝit
Sulu		sakit		layag	

The diphthongs ai and au also probably formed part of the primitive phonetic system; ai is usually written ay, ai, and au, ao or au; cf.

	'house'	'day'	'lake'
Tag.	bahay	arao	
Bis.	balay	adlao	danao
Bik.		aldao	
Pamp.	balay		
Pang.	$baley^{\iota}$	$ageo^{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$	
Ilok.	balay	aldao	danao
Iban.	balay	aggau	
Mag.	walay		lanau
Sulu	bai	adlau	(lanau) danau

To these sounds are probably to be added,

- a) an indistinct vowel & (cf. below, p. 331 f.),
- b) r (cf. below, p. 333),
- c) the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 335). and perhaps h (cf. below, p. 335 f.).

Remarks on the Vowels.

The letters o and u are constantly interchanged in the same language in writing, e. g., Tag. otang, utang 'debt,' and according to the statements of the grammars this graphic difference is represented by a corresponding difference in the pronunciation. Hence it is hardly possible to distinguish between primitive Philippine u and o.

¹ For the significance of this spelling with e, cf. below, p. 331.

There is also a similar interchange between the letters i and e, and the sounds represented by them, e. g., Tag. babayi, babaye 'woman,' but this interchange is so limited in scope, the e corresponding to i rarely occurring, that all such cases are most conveniently referred to primitive Philippine i.

The letters e and o are sometimes used to indicate the contraction of the diphthongs ai and au, but usually in these cases the origin of the e or o is perfectly clear, and there is no chance of confusion with the other e and o. In the Central Group this contraction seems to be sporadic and confined to the final syllable of certain very common words, e. g., Tag. and Bis. mey 'have,' Bik. dey 'not to have,' where the writing ey indicates the pronunciation \tilde{e} ; Tag. ikao'y for $ikao\ ay$, where the elision of the a of the particle ay points to the pronunciation In Ibanag and Pampangan these diphthongs at the end of a word are regularly contracted before a possessive suffix beginning with a consonant, e. g., Iban. bale-k 'my house' Pamp. balæ-mo 'thy house' from balay 'house'. In Ibanag the diphthong ay is pronounced ei, i. e., the first element is pronounced e and not a, e. g., patay 'dead,' ammay 'rice;' in Pangasinan the first element of both the diphthongs ai and au seems to be sometimes pronounced as e, as is indicated by the spelling, e. g., baley 'village, house,' ageo 'day.'

Generally speaking, cognate words have the same vowels in all the different languages, a corresponding to a, i to i, o, u to o, u. In a number of words, however, the vowels vary from one language to another, in general, Tagalog i being represented in Bisayan and Bikol by o or u; in Ilokan, Pangasinan, and Magindanao by \check{e} ; in Ibanag and Pampangan by a; e. g.,

				(passive	
	'rice'	'hear'	'room'	suffix)	'six'
Tag.	bigas	${f din} ilde{f g} {f i} {f g}$	silid	-in	anim
Bis.	bugas	$\mathbf{dun}\mathbf{ ilde{g}ug}$	\mathbf{sulud}	-on	unum
Bik.		${f dan ilde{g}og}$		-on	anum
Ilok.	bagas	${f den ilde geg}$	silid	-en	innem
Pang.		${f den} ilde{f g} {f e} {f l}$		-en	anem
Mag.	begas			-en	anem
Iban.	\mathbf{baggat}			-an	annam
Pamp.				-an	anam

 $^{^{1}}$ In this article, unless otherwise stated, o and u, and i and e, are respectively considered as equivalent.

It is quite possible that this varied vocalism is the representation of a fourth primitive Philippine vowel, an indistinct vowel like the Indo-European shewa, which in a similar way is represented by several different vowels in the various Indo-European languages.

In Sulu there is a vowel corresponding to the German \ddot{u} , e. g., $t\ddot{u}d$ 'very,' $buk\ddot{u}n$ 'it is not.' This, however, seems to be a secondary Sulu development, words containing it having in some cases by-forms with a or o, u, or corresponding to forms with these vowels in the cognate languages, e. g., maisig, maisog 'bold, intrepid' (Bis. maisog); $dak\ddot{u}p$, dakap 'embrace' (Malay dakap).

Remarks on the Consonants.

Labials.

A final p in Ibanag regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

In some of the languages of the Northern Group p and b pass at times into the spirants f and v. In Ibanag this change regularly takes place when original p is followed by u or o, e. g., fulu 'ten' (Pang. and Bis. polo, Magin. pulu, etc.). In Nabaloi Igorot p and f are often used interchangeably in the same word, e. g., apil or afil 'different;' in others the p or f respectively are constant, e. g., palit 'dear,' andufit 'soft.'

In Bontoc Igorot, and also in the northern part of the Nabaloi territory, there is a similar interchange between b and f, e. g., Bont. babayi and fafayi 'woman,' Nab. balei and falei 'house.'

In Ibanag, just as pu becomes fu, bu becomes vu, the b, however, being still retained in spelling, e. g., buaya 'cayman.'

The sound v occurs in the one word asivi 'small' in Sulu.

In Magindanao a b sometimes becomes w (written u), e. g., uato 'stone,' uata 'boy,' ualay 'house' (Tag. bato, bata, Bis. balay); but it is sometimes preserved, e. g., babay 'woman,' nğibu 'thousand' (Tag. babayi, libo).

In Nabaloi Igorot original wa regularly becomes gwa (written gua or goa), e. g., gualo 'eight,' asagoa 'spouse' (Tag. walo, asawa).

¹ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 34.

² Cf. Brugmann, Grundriss der Vergl. Gram. der indogerm. Sprachen, 2^{to} Bearb., Strassburg, 1897, Bd. 1, p. 170.

Dentals.

In Ibanag the combination ti regularly becomes si, e. g., sinakao 'robbed' from a root takao with infix in. An original final t regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

A d of the other languages is regularly represented by the affricative ch in Nabaloi Igorot, e. g., chalan 'road,' achalem 'deep' (Ilok. dalan, adalem), and in Bontoc Igorot the two sounds are used interchangeably, as in the place names Chakong or Dakong, Pudpudchog or Pudpuddog.

In Ibanag the combination di when not preceded by a (in which case d > r, cf. below, becomes $\check{z}i$ (written ji), e. g., jinakay 'leprous' from the root dakay.

In Ibanag an s not followed by i seems to be regularly changed to t, e. g., ataua 'spouse' (Tag. asawa), takit 'sickness' (Tag. sakit) ta 'to, in the, etc.' (Tag. sa); but si the personal article (Tag. si).

One of the most complex chapters of Philippine phonology is that which is concerned with the interrelations of the sounds d, r, l.

In a number of words an Ibanag, Ilokan, Bikol, and Samaro-Leytean r corresponds to a Tagalog, Bisayan (except Sam.-Ley.), Pampangan Pangasinan, Magindanao and Sulu l, e. g.,

	'write'	'silver'	'thousand'	'how much?'
Iban.	surat	pirak	ribu	
Ilok.	surat	pirak	ribo	
Bik.	surat	pirak	${f ribo}$	pira
SamLey	. surat		ribo ('mil	lion') pira
Tag.	sulat	pilak	libo	
Bis.	sulat	pilak	libo	pila
Pamp.	sulat		libo	pilan
Pang.	sulat		libo	
Mag.	sulat			pila
Sulu	sulat	pelak		pela

As an original l is in general preserved without change in most of the languages, r is here probably to be regarded as the more original sound.

An original intervocalic l is lost in Tagalog and Sulu; in Tagalog it is represented by the glottal catch between the two vowels, or a secondary h or semi-vowel is developed between

them, e. g., daan 'road,' bahay 'house,' powo 'ten' (Bis. dalan, balay, polo); in Sulu the two vowels are contracted, e. g., dan 'road,' bai 'house,' poh 'ten.'

In Batan such an l seems regularly to become g, e. g., ogo 'head,' pogo 'ten,' bagay 'house,' bugan 'month' (Bis. olo, polo, balay, bulan). The same change is perhaps illustrated in Ibanag, Pangasinan, and Nabaloi piga 'how much?' (Bis. pila). This change from l to g probably passed through the intermediate stages, guttural r, and the guttural sonant spirant like g in the North German pronunciation of tage 'days.' The writing g, indeed, may be simply an imperfect attempt to indicate the latter sound.

In Nabaloi Igorot an l or r of the other languages is often represented by d, e. g., idoko 'Ilokan' (Ilok. iloko), mabadin 'possible' (Ilok. mabalin), sudat 'write' (Ilok. surat, Tag. sulat).

In Batan the change from l to d is also found, e. g., dima 'five,' tatdo 'three' (Bis. lima, tatlo).

An intervocalic d is in many of the languages often changed to r. So in Tagalog, Bisayan, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ibanag, Nabaloi, Batan, and Sulu; apparently not in Bikol, Ilokan and Magindanao, cf.

Tag. narito 'is here' from dito 'here.'

Bis. aruna, duna 'have.'

Pamp. kareni 'to these' from deni 'these.'

Pang. maronong 'wise' from root donong.

Iban. ikarua 'second' from root dua 'two.'

Nab. marikit 'pretty,' cf. Tag. dikit 'beauty.'

Bat. icharua 'second,' cf. Iban. dua 'two.'

Sulu ha ran 'on the road' from dan 'road.'

Ilok. ida 'they' from da.

Palatals and Gutturals.

In Ibanag final k regularly becomes the glottal catch (cf. below, p. 336).

In Nabaloi Igorot k is often changed to the corresponding surd spirant like German ch, which may be represented by x, e. g., ixamen 'mat' (Ilok. ikamen), asixen 'old man' (Pang. asiken).

In Bontoc Igorot k and g are constantly interchanged, e. g., kulid or gulid 'itch,' yeka or yega 'earthquake.'

In Batan a k in juxtaposition to an i sound either before or after it regularly becomes ch, e. g., icha- prefix which forms ordinals, machi- verbal prefix indicating accompaniment (Tag. ika, maki).

A g of the other languages is sometimes represented in Ilokan by r, the change in all probability being the reverse of the process illustrated by the change from l to g (cf. above, p. 334), e. g., baro 'new,' rabiy 'night,' darat 'sand' (Tag. bago, gab-i, dagat 'sea').

In Nabaloi Igorot y becomes regularly dy, e. g., dyo 'your,' adyab 'call' (Ilok. yo, ayab).

Laryngeals.

Under this category the Philippine languages seem originally to have possessed the glottal catch or laryngeal stop, and perhaps the surd spirant h. The glottal catch is not recognized as a separate sound in any of the works on the Philippine languages, but its presence in many languages is indicated by the statements of the grammars, and it probably occurs in all. For example, the Tagalog grammars speak of final vowels with guttural accent, of vowels pronounced separately from the single consonant which precedes them, and state that two juxtaposed vowels stand in different syllables. These statements are to be understood as follows. The hiatus between the two vowels in such a word as doon 'there' is of course identical with the glottal catch: the fact that a vowel following a single consonant begins a new syllable, as for example in gab-i 'night,' indicates that between the two stands the glottal catch, which really begins the second syllable: the so-called guttural accent of a final vowel seems to be really a glottal catch after the vowel; when the final vowel has at the same time the stress accent, the vowel is marked with a circumflex, e. g., wald 'is, has not;' when it is unstressed, with a grave accent, e. g., wikà 'word, language.' The glottal catch in Ibanag resulting from a final stop is of course secondary (cf. below, p. 336).

The spirant h does not occur in Ibanag, Ilokan, Pangasinan, Nabaloi, and Pampangan, but it may have been an original Philippine sound, as it is preserved in the other Philippine languages; cf.

¹ Not given in the list of consonants.

	'wind'	'dear'	'hair'	'before'	'king'
Ilok.	anĝin		book		ari
Pang.				arap	ari
Nab.			\mathbf{buek}		
Pamp.	anĝin	\mathbf{mal}			
Tag.	hanĝin	\mathbf{mahal}	buhok	harap	hari

In Sulu a word with vocalic initial sometimes takes a secondary h before it, e. g., hinom 'drink' (general Philippine inum). In Tagalog, Bisayan, and Bikol an h is sometimes inserted between a final vowel and the suffixes an and in (cf. below, p. 337).

Other Phonetic Changes.

The final stops k, p, t, in Ibanag are, according to the statement in the principal Ibanag grammar, not pronounced, but the preceding vowel receives a peculiar aspiration. This clearly points to the fact that these consonants have become the glottal catch, like the final k in Malay. This pronunciation is indicated in the grammar by placing a dash between the final consonant and the preceding word, e. g., a-k 'I,' taki-t 'sickness.' In the present article, however, the dash will be omitted for the sake of convenience. Before this glottal catch the vowel a is pronounced as o, though a is usually written (but cf. so-k 'I').

A characteristic feature of Ibanag and Ilokan is the doubling of originally single consonants, e. g., Iban. battu 'stone,' annam 'six' (Tag. bato, anim), Ilok. adda 'be' (Malay ada).

In Ibanag the final consonants b, d, g, n are assimilated to an initial consonant in a following word, e. g., $kanak\ ku$ 'my food' $< kanan\ ku$; and all final consonants are pronounced in the same syllable with an initial vowel of a following word, the change from final surd stop to glottal catch not being made in

^{1&#}x27;... quedan absolutamente sin sonido, y mudas; mas debe darse en la vocal, que les precede, un golpe de aspiracion, que solo la voz de maestro puede espresar, y enseñar debidamente.' Cf. De Cuevas, op. cit., p. 10.

² Cf. Seidel, Prak. Gram. d. Mal. Sprache, p. 5. It is interesting to note that this final glottal catch is written (e. g., النق ana' 'son') which in Arabic in general is equal to k+glottal catch, and which in some modern Arabic dialects has become simply the glottal catch. Cf. Favre, op. cit., p. 12; Marsden, op. cit., p. 11 f.; Wahrmund, Praktische Gram. der neu-arab. Sprache, Giessen, 1861, p. 11.

this case, e. g., mælugak 'I want' < mælug ak, ayata mapia 'great joy' < ayat a mapia.

In Tagalog after a final vowel the a of the particle ay and the conjunction at may be elided, e. g., ang tawo'y mabuti (< tawo ay) 'the man is good,' ama't ina (< ama at) 'father and mother.' This elision may also take place after a final n, the n being lost at the same time, e. g., iya'y mabuti (< iyan ay) 'this is good,' amai't ali (amain at) 'uncle and aunt.'

Many contractions and elisions take place in Pampangan, but the statements of the grammar on this subject are very meagre and unsatisfactory; cf., however, kana kita for kana ku ita, iyeni for iya ini, meng for me ing, yang for ya ing, totita for toto ita.

In Tagalog the suffixes an and in are added directly to a word ending in a final vowel with glottal catch, e. g., turo-an 'be taught;' after other final vowels an h is inserted, e. g., sabi-h-in 'be said,' una-h-an 'front part.' The same rule as regards the insertion of the h probably applies also to Bisayan and Bikol.

PRONOUNS DERIVED FROM PARTICLES.

The Philippine pronouns with regard to their origin may be divided into two classes, viz.,

- a) pronouns derived from monosyllabic particles,
- b) pronouns derived from dissyllabic roots.

To the second class belong the indefinite pronouns, except those derived from the interrogatives, e. g., Tag. kaunti 'a little' from the root unti, marami 'much' from the root dami; and the numerals, e. g., Tag. apat 'four,' lima 'five.'

To the first class belong

- a) the ligatures,
- b) the articles,
- c) the demonstrative pronouns,
- d) the interrogative pronouns,
- e) the personal pronouns.

The present investigation will be confined to the pronouns of the first class, which will be treated in the order named.

Pronouns derived from particles consist either of a simple root particle, or of a root particle combined with other prefixed

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and suffixed particles. The prefixes are usually articular in character, and are employed to express case; the suffixes are ordinarily derived from ligatures which stood originally between the pronoun and the following word. Those pronouns that are inflected distinguish in general three cases (cf. above, p. 324), though sometimes two cases have identical forms.

The Ligatures.

The ligatures that occur in the various languages are the following, viz.:

Tag.	na	$-\mathbf{ng}$	(-n)		$\mathbf{a}\mathbf{y}$	-y
Bis. (in gen.)	nĝa	$-\mathbf{ng}$				-y
Bis. (SamLey.)	nĝa	(-ng)	-n			
Bik.	na	-ng				
Pamp.		-ng	-n	a		
Pang.			-n	a	ya	-y
Ilok.	$_{ ext{n} ilde{ ext{g}} ext{a}}$		-n	a		
Iban.	nga			a		
Bat.				a		
Ig. (Nab.)				a		
Ig. (Bon.)			-n		$\mathbf{a}\mathbf{y}$	
Mag.				\mathbf{a}		1
Sulu						i,-y²
Bag.						i³

¹ In the paradigms of the pronouns all those forms that are not given as nominative or genitive in the grammars are grouped under the oblique. As the oblique is often used as the equivalent of the genitive, e. g., Tag. ama nang batà=sa bata-ng ama 'father of the boy,' forms that are really oblique are often given by the grammars under the genitive, but this will occasion little difficulty from a morphological point of view. Sometimes the oblique forms are not given by the grammars, in which case they are probably to be formed by prefixing the oblique of the definite article to the nominative.

² Not specifically mentioned as ligature by the grammars, though examples of both occur.

² Ka is also said to be a relative in the sentence dini doon kagi ka diri nonga olitan 'here are words that it is not proper to reveal;' but it is here in all probability simply the genitive of the definite article used before the following clause, which modifies kagi 'words' just like a noun in the genitive.

The forms with dash are used only after vowels, e. g., Bis. tawo-ng maayo 'good man,' the others, in general, after both vowels and consonants, e. g., Bis. tawo ng̃a maayo 'good man,' maalam ng̃a magtotoon 'learned teacher.' Tagalog ay, -y are used only to join together two elements that stand to each other in the relation of subject and predicate, and then only when the subject precedes, e. g., ang tawo'y mabuti 'the man is good.' Bisayan -y is also sometimes employed in this case, but is also used as the equivalent of the other ligatures.'

The difference between -ng and -n in those languages which possess both is difficult to determine. Often they seem to be used interchangeably; in Pampangan -n is used especially before an indefinite noun, like the signs of the indefinite object in Bis., and Iban. (cf. below, p. 345); e. g., kuma ka-n danum 'take some water.' The choice of a and $n\tilde{g}a$ in those languages which possess both seems to be regulated by euphonic considerations: in Ilokan a must be used when the preceding word ends and the following begins with a consonant, e. g., toy a balay 'this house; $n\tilde{g}a$ must be used when the preceding word ends and the following begins with a vowel a, e. g., dayta n\tilde{g}a aso 'that dog,' otherwise the two are used indiscriminately. Ilokan -n is used before the adverbs sa and to, e. g., adda-n-sa 'is there perhaps,' adda-n-to 'will there be,' and has also various other uses.² In Pangasinan ya is used principally to join clauses, e. g., alam so libro ya wala-d³ silid 'bring the book which is in the room; '-y is used as the equivalent of -n, and also as a substitute for the nominative and genitive of the articles, e. g., talora-y silla=talora-n silla 'three chairs,' onla dia-y. Antonio= onla dia si Antonio 'come here Antonio.' Otherwise the four forms are practically equivalent except that -n and -y are only

 $^{^{1}}$ Cf. my paper, Differences between Tagalog and Bisayan, JAOS. xxv, 1904, p. 167 f.

² Cf. Williams, Grammatische Skizze der Ilokano-Sprache (dissertation), München, 1904, p. 64 f.

³ Contracted from wala ed. In Pangasinan wala means 'to be,' in Tagalog and Bisayan it means 'not to be,' one being affirmative, the other negative. A similar difference in meaning is presented in Semitic by Hebrew 's be willing,' Arabic 'abaia, Ethiopic has 'abaia' 'be unwilling, refuse.'

used after vowels. In the meager specimens of Bontoc Igorot which are accessible -n is used after a vowel, ay after either vowel or consonant, e. g., chuwa-n lasot 'two hundred,' chuwa ay lifo 'two thousand,' siam ay poo 'ninety' (nine tens). In Magindanao a is the usual ligature, i being used mainly after interrogative words instead of the article su, e. g., tingin i midtalu salka 'who spoke to you?' In Sulu the ligature i occurs sporadically, e. g., pela i bulan 'how many months?' In Bagobo the ligature is used as relative.

All these ligatures seem to be derived from the four particles na, $n\tilde{g}a$, a, and i. The forms -n and -ng are shortened respectively from na and $n\tilde{g}a$; i after a vowel forms the second element of a diphthong and is then often written -y; ay and ya are probably combinations of the two particles a and i; na and $n\tilde{g}a$ are perhaps simply two forms of the same particle.

The Articles.

The Philippine languages possess not only a definite and indefinite article, which are in the main equivalent to the corresponding English articles, but also a personal and an inclusive article (cf. above, p. 325).

Definite Article.

The forms of the definite article in the various languages are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	ang	\mathbf{nang}	sa
Bis. (Ceb.)	ang	\mathbf{sa}	sa
Bis. (Hil.)	ang (ing)	sang	sa
Bis. (SamI	Ley.) an (in)	san, nan, ka	nan sa
Bis. (Har.)	ya, nan	sa, kan,	\mathbf{et}
Bik.	an, si	nin, ninsi, s	a, kan
Pamp.	sg. ing	\mathbf{ning}	$_{f king}$
•	pl. ding	$(\mathrm{ding})^{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$	karing
Pang.	sg. so, say	na	\mathbf{ed}

¹ Doubtless the correct form (cf. inc. art.), though not given by the grammar.

Pang. pl	saray, iray, ray; so saray	\mathbf{day}	ed saray
rang. p	ray; so saray	na saray	
Ilok.	sg. iti, ti	ti	iti
	pl. dagiti	dagiti	kadagiti
Igor. (Nab.)	e^{i}	ne	sun, chi
Iban.	\mathbf{i}^{-}	na	ta
Bat.	u, su	nu	du, (u, su)2
Mag.	su	∫ na, nu,³ sa	sa, kana,
mag.	bu	∫ na, nu,³ sa kana, kanu³	kanu³
Sulu	in	sin, kan	ha, pa
Bag.	yan, i	ka, ta	ka, ta

Nominative.

Forms that are apparently root particles are ya, si, i, u, ti. Ya is probably identical with the ligature ya; si is the personal article used as definite (cf. below, p. 346); i is probably identical with the ligature i; ti is probably identical with the demonstrative root particle ti (cf. below, p. 353).

Pangasinan, Batan, and Magindanao su, so, may be a root particle, or u with an inflectional s borrowed from si, the nominative of the personal article. Nabaloi s may be a variant form of i, or a contraction of *ay identical with the ligature ay.

The forms ang, an, ing, in, yan seem to consist of the root particles i and ya just described, and a which is probably identical with the ligature a, followed by the ligature -ng, -n, which is regularly used in these languages between two words that stand to one another in the relation of modified and modifier, when the first of the group ends in a vowel. Originally the root particle was the article, and -ng, -n simply a connective, the -ng in Taga-

¹ Also given as objective along with sun and chi.

² The oblique case forms are given as du, lu, su, but this is almost certainly a mistake for du, l. u, su, l. being an abbreviation for 'or,' as in the nominative su l. u. No particle which could be connected with this apparent lu occurs in any of the languages, except, perhaps, in Magindanao (cf. below, p. 372) and there it seems to be a foreign element. As these forms are headed 'dat., ac., abl.' the forms u, su are probably nominatives used as accusatives (cf. below, p. 380, ft. nt. 1).

³ As these forms are given by Juanmarti in the paradigm only in connection with the following plural particle $man\tilde{g}a$, the u may be a modification of a due to the labial m.

⁴ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 78.

log a-ng tawo 'the man' being no more a part of the article than the -ng in ito-ng tawo 'this man.' The ligature, however, has become an integral part of the article, as is shown by the pronominal use of the article before an oblique case, e. g., Tag. ang sa tawo 'that of the man,' where the ligature would ordinarily not be employed.

Pangasinan say seems to be a combination of a root particle sa and the ligature i. Whether this sa is ultimately identical with the sa of the oblique case (cf. below) is uncertain.

Harayan nan is probably borrowed from the genitive, being doubtless identical with the Samaro-Leytean genitive nan (cf. below).

Ilokan iti seems to be a combination of the simpler form ti with an articular prefix i doubtless identical with Ibanag nominative i, and ultimately with the ligature i. This i is to be distinguished from the prepositional i which occurs in the identical oblique case iti (cf. below).

The plural forms in Pangasinan and Ilokan contain a plural element da, ra, which is identical with the root particles da, ra, la of the third person plural (cf. below, p. 381 f.). In Pangasinan ra is always followed by the ligature i, and it also may take the prefixes i, sa, and so sa, i being identical with the i of Ilokan nominative iti, sa and so with the sa and so of the Pangasinan singular. In Ilokan the plural is made by prefixing dag, consisting of da+an additional pluralizing element g, i to the singular iti. In Pampangan ding, which like the singular forms ang, ing, contains the ligature -ng, di may be a modification of da due to the influence of the i of the singular, or it may be an independent root particle (cf. below, p. 348).

Genitive.

The genitive forms that are apparently root particles are sa, et, na, ti, ka. Ti is the same as the ti in the nominative; sa, et and ka belong rather to the oblique (cf. below); na is probably identical with the ligature na.

Batan nu and perhaps Magindanao nu (cf., however, p. 341, ft. nt.) may be a root particle, or it may be u with an inflec-

¹ Cf. my article, The Bisayan Dialects, cited above, p. 127.

tional n borrowed from na. Nabaloi ne is either a variant form of ni, or na + the ligature i. Bagobo ta has apparently no representative in any of the other languages, Ibanag ta (obl.) representing an original sa.

The forms nang, nan, sang, san, consist of the root particles na and sa followed by the ligature -ng, -n. The forms ning, nin consist of a similar combination of the ligature with a particle ni, which may itself be a root particle, or the root particle i with an inflectional n borrowed from na.

In Bikol *ninsi* the genitive is prefixed to the nominative. Sulu *sin* is probably the nominative *in* with an inflectional *s* borrowed from the genitive and oblique *sa* (cf. below, p. 354). The forms *kan*, *kana*, *kana*, *kanu*, seem to be borrowed from the oblique (cf. below).

The plural forms in Pampangan and Ilokan are identical with the nominative. In Pangasinan the form day (=plural particle da +ligature i) is probably more original than ray of the nominative, where the r is doubtless due to the analogy of the other nominative forms (cf. below, p. 382): in the form na saray; na, the genitive singular, is prefixed as genitive case sign to the nominative.

Oblique.

The forms that are apparently root particles are sa (including Iban. ta, cf. above, p. 333), et, ed, *di (Nab. chi, cf. above, p. 333), ha, pa, ka. Et and ed are probably identical, and are perhaps to be connected with di; di is doubtless identical with the Malay preposition di 'in;' Sulu ha is perhaps to be connected with the Sulu active verbal suffixes a, ha just as the i of Ilokan i-ti is probably identical with the active verbal suffix i of Malay (cf. below); Sulu pa, which indicates motion towards, is perhaps identical with the verbal prefix pa, which is used to form verbs of motion, e. g., Tag. pa-rito 'come here' from dito 'here,' pa-sa-Maynila 'go to Manila' from sa-Maynila 'in Manila;' ka is doubtless identical with the Malay preposition ka 'to, towards.' For Bagobo ta cf. under genitive.

The form kan consists of the root particle ka+ligature n; Pampangan king consists of the ligature ng and a root particle ki which is probably modified from ka under the influence

of the *i* vocalism of the other forms; Batan du is probably u with an inflectional d borrowed from the particle di; Nabaloi sun consists perhaps of the root particle u with an inflectional s as in Sulu genitive sin, and ligature n; Ilokan iti consists of the root particle ti, and a prepositional i^i identical with the i of the Tagalog adverbs and prepositions sa i-babao 'over,' sa i-taas 'above,' sa i-baba' below,' sa i-lalim 'underneath,' which consist of a root preceded by two prepositional elements i and sa. This i may be identical with the prefix i of the passive, just as in Malay di is both preposition and passive prefix.² The same preposition i seems also to occur as active suffix in Malay, where it is equivalent to the active suffix kan, connected with the preposition ka.³

In Samaro-Leytean kanan, Magindanao kana, kanu, ka is prefixed as oblique case sign to the genitive; in the plural of Pampangan and Ilokan to the nominative-genitive. In the Pagnasinan plural, ed is prefixed as oblique case sign to the nominative.

For the Batan forms u and su, which are identical with the nominative, cf. above, p. 341, ft. nt. 2.

Indefinite Article.

The idea of the indefinite article, whenever it is not indicated sufficiently by the nature of the construction, is expressed by the numeral one, which unlike the numerals from 'two' upward seems to be derived from pronominal particles. This numeral, however, is not inflected, but expresses its ease by means of an inflected word placed before it. Its forms in the various languages are, viz.:

Tag.	isa	Ilok.	meysa
Bis. (Ceb.)	usa	Igor. (Nab.)	saxei
Bis. (Hil.)	isa, usa	Igor. (Bon.)	isa
Bis. (SamLey.)) usa	Iban.	itte, tadday
Bik.	saro	Mag.	isa
Pamp.	isa, metong	Sulu	isa
Pang.	isa, sakey	Bag.	\mathbf{sabbad}

¹ Cf. Brandstetter, Tag. u. Mad., p. 78.

² Cf. Favre, Grammaire de la langue malaise, Vienne, 1876, pp. 132, 158. Seidel, op. cit., pp. 52, 66.

³ Cf. Marsden, op. cit., p. 56.

All of these forms except Pampangan metong, which is not clear, are derived from a root particle sa, which is used for 'one' in Javanese and Malay. The initial i of isa is probably the same articular i which has already been seen in Ilokan nominative iti, and which has an extensive use in the demonstrative and personal pronouns (cf. below).

Ibanag itte probably consists of *itta + the ligature i, just as due 'two' is probably equivalent to dua + i; *itta is doubtless derived from *ita (=isa, cf. above, p. 333), with the doubling which is so characteristic of Ibanag (cf. above, p. 336). In Ilokan instead of the simple i, mey, contracted from mai, a combination of i and the adjectival prefix ma, is used, just as it is employed instead of the simple i of many of the other languages, in the formation of the ordinals, e. g., Ilok. maikapat 'fourth' (Tag. ikapat).

The u of Bisayan usa is probably identical with Batan u (cf. also below, pp. 354, 361).

Ibanag tadday (<*sadday, cf. above, p. 333) is perhaps to be analyzed as root particle sa+da, root particle of third person plural, + ligature i, the doubling being phonetic. The second elements of Bikol sa-ro, Pangasinan sa-key, Nabaloi sa-xei, Bagobo sa-bbad are, perhaps, similar in nature to the numeral coefficients of Malay.

Under the head of indefinite articles are best considered those particles which indicate the indefinite object of an action. In Cebuan these are ug, more rarely ak; in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean sing and sin respectively: e. g., Cebuan kumuha ka ug tubig 'take some water.' The two last are probably identical in formation with sin, the genitive of the definite article in Sulu. In Ibanag a particle tu, perhaps identical with Batan and Magindanao su, Pangasinan so, is employed, e. g., apam mu tu kanak ku 'bring me something to eat.'

Personal Article.

The forms of the personal article in the various languages are, viz.:

¹ Cf. Favre, op. cit., p. 71f.; Maxwell, Manual of the Malay Lang., London, 1902. p. 70f.

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	\mathbf{si}	ni	kay
Bis.	$_{si}$ {	ni kanan (SamLey.)) kay (Hil., Har.)
1315.	S1 (kanan (SamLey.)	kan (Ceb., Sam
			Ley., Hil.)
Bik.	\mathbf{si}	ni	ki
Pamp.	i	nan	kan
Pang.	\mathbf{si}	nen	ed
Ilok.	si, ni	. ni	ken
Igor. (Nab.)	$\mathbf{si}^{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$	nan, ne	sun, sikan
Iban.	\mathbf{si}	ni	ta, takkua, tak-
			kuani
Bat.	si	ni	di
Mag.	\mathbf{si}	ni, kani	kani
Sulu	\mathbf{hi}		
Bag.	si	ni	kan
-			

The usual nominative is the root particle si. In Pampangan i, identical with the root particle i of the definite article, is employed, and with this, Sulu hi is perhaps identical, as a secondary h is sometimes developed before an initial vowel (cf. above, p. 336). Ilokan ni is derived from the genitive (cf. below, p. 387).

The usual genitive is the particle ni (cf. above, p. 343). The forms nan, kanan, ne are to be explained like nan, kanan, ne of the definite article. Pangasinan nen seems to be the articular root particle na+the ligatures i and n, *nain being contracted to nen (cf. above, p. 331). Magindanao kani belongs rather to the oblique.

In the oblique case most of the forms are based on the articular root particle ka: kan consists of ka + the ligature n; kay, of ka + the ligature y; Ilokan ken is probably to be analyzed, like Pangasinan nen, as ka+i+n; Magindanao kani consists of ka + the genitive ni: Nabaloi sikan is kan with what is apparently the nominative si prefixed. Bikol ki seems to be a modification of ka due to the influence of the i in the other case forms si and ni. Pangasinan does not distinguish between the

¹ Also given as objective along with sun and sikan.

definite and personal articles in the oblique case, ed serving for both, and in Ibanag the oblique case ta of the definite article is used either alone or in the compound forms takkua, takkuani as the oblique of the personal article. The kua in the compounds just mentioned is a noun meaning 'thing, possession,' which is used in Ilokan and Ibanag in conjunction with the postpositive genitives of the personal pronouns to form possessive pronouns, e. g., kua-k 'mine,' kua-m 'thine,' etc.'; ni is the genitive of the personal article. Batan di is doubtless identical with Nabaloi chi, Malay di (cf. above, p. 343).

Inclusive Article.

The forms of the inclusive article, in so far as they are given by the various grammars, are as follows, viz.:

1	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sina	nina	kana
Bis. (Ceb.)	sa	na	ka
Bis. (Hil.)	\mathbf{sanday}	nanday	kanday
	sila nay	ila nay	sa ila nay
	sila ni	ila ni	sa ila ni
	sila si	nila ni	kanila ni
	sila sa²		
Bis. (SamLey.)		nira	kanda
Bik. {	sa, sainda sa, sinda sa	na, ninda na	na, sainda na
Pamp.	di·	di	kari
Pang. {	sara di {	da di na sara di	ed sara di
Ilok.	da³	da^3	
Iban.	da	da	takkuara

The Tagalog forms are compounded of a particle na, perhaps identical with the ligature na, and the case forms of the personal article, ka being used instead of ka-y.

³ Cf. Naves, op. cit., pp, 80, 121.

¹ Cf. Naves, op. cit., p. 85; De Cuevas, op. cit., p. 77.

² Cf. Mentrida and Aparicio, op. cit., p. 10.

Cebuan and Bikol sa, which occurs also in Hiliguayna $sila\ sa$, seems to be a modification of si, a perhaps being borrowed from the plural particle da, where it was felt as a plural ending. The other case forms na and ka were then made on the basis of sa, the nominative case sign s being changed respectively to n and k.

In many instances the inclusive article is based on the pronoun of the third person plural (cf. below, p. 379 ff.). In Hiliguayna, sanday is the pronoun sanda 'they' + the ligature i; nanday and kanday are made on this basis by simply changing the case sign: sila nay and its declined forms is a combination of the pronoun sila 'they' with a particle nay, probably na, identical with na in Tagalog si-na, + the ligature i: for sila sa cf. below. The other Hiliguayna forms consist of sila followed by the nominative or genitive of the personal article.

Samaro-Leytean sira, nira are identical with the corresponding forms of the pronoun of the third person plural; the oblique kanda is to be connected with the stem of Hiliguayna sanday. The Bikol forms like sinda sa, ninda na, etc., and Hiliguayna sila sa, consist of the forms of the pronoun of the third person plural followed by the nominative or genitive of the inclusive article sa: sainda sa, if it is not a typographical error, owes its initial syllable sa to the influence of the inclusive article sa. Ilokan and Ibanag da is identical with the root particle da of the pronoun of the third person plural. The sign of the oblique case in Ibanag, viz., takkua- is to be explained as in the case of the personal article. Pampangan di may be a modification of da due to the influence of the prevailing i vocalism of the articular forms, but the occurrence of di as the final element of the inclusive article in Pangasinan, where there is no such influence, seems to indicate that di is an independent particle: kari is di with prefixed case sign ka. In Pangasinan the inclusive article is made by prefixing to di, forms derived from the pronoun of the third person plural or from the plural of the definite article: sikara is identical with one of the pronouns of the third person plural; the other elements prefixed to di are the corresponding case forms of the plural of the definite article without the ligature -y.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

With regard to their meaning, the demonstrative pronouns may be divided into two general classes, A) the nearer demonstratives, which may be translated by 'this;' B) the more remote demonstratives, which may be translated by 'that.' Within these two general groups, especially in the second, there are in most of the languages further subdivisions of meaning. For example, in Tagalog, yari indicates something that is nearer the speaker than the person addressed, ito, something that is near both, iyan, something that is nearer the person addressed than the speaker, and yaon, something that is distant from both.

These more minute distinctions, however, are of practically no importance from a morphological point of view, and even in the case of the two main semantic groups, we often find what is nearer demonstrative in one, used as remoter demonstrative in another, e. g., Tagalog *ito* 'this,' Samaro-Leytean *ito* 'that.'

In general the demonstratives are made up of three elements, viz., (a) demonstrative root particles; (b) prefixed particles, usually of articular origin, which denote case and sometimes number, and which will be known as case indicating particles; (c) connective particles or ligatures, which are of two kinds, those that connect case indicating prefix with the root particle, and those that are suffixal in character, representing what was originally ligature between the demonstrative and following noun. Sometimes a demonstrative seems to contain two root demonstrative particles, viz., in Magindanao en-tu and in the Ibanag forms ending in -ye. In Bagobo an adverbial particle go appears as final element in some of the demonstratives.

The forms of the demonstrative pronouns in the various languages are, viz.:

man

	Class A.	Α.		Class B.	
Tag.	N. yari, yiri, yeri G. niri	ito nito	iyan niyan diyan	yaon, yoon nion, noon, niyaon, niyoon	1, niyoon
Bis. (Ceb.) ¹	N. kini, saini, sini' G. O. niini O. kanini	kari, diri, dari,² ari niari		kadto(t), adto niadto(t)	kitot, itot² niitot
Bis. (Hil.) Bis. (SamI	Bis. (Hil.) N. ini G. O. sini, sa sini Bis. (SamLey.) N. ini		yana, ina yadto sana, sina, sa sina sadto, sa sadto adto, yadto	yadto sadto, sa sadto adto, yadto	iton siton ito
Bis. (Har.)	G. O. sini, sa siniN. diaG. O. karia, kadia		dan karan, kadan	sadto, sa sadto dagto karagto, kagto	sito, sa sito
Bik. Pamp.	N. ini G. O. kaini sg. N. ini G. nini O. kanini, keni o. kanini, keni O. kareni	iti niti kaniti, keti deti kareti	iyan kaiyan iyan niyan kean³ dean³ karean³	idto kaidto ita nita kanita, keta deta kareta	
Pang.	sg. N. saya, aya, ia; so saya G. tonia; na saya O. 'ed saya pl. N. saraya, raya, iraya; so saraya	82	satan, itan, atan, tan; so satan tontan; na satan ed satan saratan, iratan, ratan; so saratan	п	saman, aman, iman, man; so saman tonman, na saman ed saman saraman, iraman, raman; so sara-

G. dania, na salaya	dantan; na saratan	atan	danman; na sara-
O. 'ed saraya	ed saratan		man ed saraman
N. G. daytoy, toy	dayta, ta	daydi, di	dediay, diay ^b
O. itoy, iti daytoy	ita, iti dayta	idi, iti daydi	idiay, iti dediay
N. G. dagitoy	dagita	dagidi	dagidiay
O. kadagitoy	kadagita	kadagidi	kadagidiay
saidiai, sadiai, iai	satan, sutan, suta, itan	ıta, itan	saman, iman
sg. N. yau, au (yoye	∫ yara	(yajje	yad
all	(yari	$\langle yatun \rangle$	And
O. tau declined		(ytunye	yojje
$n_{l} = 0$ danau in			pod.
annau same			yujje
G. danau way			yora
) takkaranau			yuri
takkuaranau (yura
nooya	uri	au	
inia	anan	enta	
ini	ien	ietu	iaun
ini	toy	toigo	yango, to

¹ The adverb 'to day' makes case forms like the demonstratives, viz., nom. karon, gen.-obl. niaron.

² Given in the Cebuan paradigms in Mentrida and Aparicio's Hiliguayna Grammar, p. 250 f.

³ In these forms ean represents a contraction of *aiyan, intervocalic y becoming the hiatus or glottal catch as perhaps in ⁴ The form diad is given in the paradigms as the equivalent of ed in the ablative case, but this is simply the adverb sia for siya; cf. below, p. 381.

dia 'here' + ed.

⁵ Given by Williams, op. cit. p. 59.

The root particles of the demonstrative are di, ni, to, ya, au, na, ti, ta, ma, en, and possibly a (cf. below, under ya and na). The particles ya, na, a are probably identical, respectively, with the ligatures, ya, na, a.

Di, which when intervocalic appears in many languages as ri, is found in Tag. ya-ri, yi-ri, ye-ri, ni-ri, all the forms of Ceb. ka-ri, Iban. ya-ri, yu-ri, Bat. u-ri, Ilok. day-di, de-di-ay, and in Nab. sai-di-ai, sa-di-ai. The root particle is found uncombined only in Ilokan. Ilokan dediay is daydi + the double ligature ay, day being contracted to de. In Ibanag the forms yad and yud seem to to shortened from yari and yuri respectively; and these shortened forms were then augmented by the addition of a, probably the ligature a, viz., yara, yura, and ye, probably contracted from the ya which occurs as the pronoun of the third person + the ligature -y, viz., yaije (<*yad-ye), yuije (<*yud-ye).

Ni occurs in Tagalog oblique di-ni and all the forms of Cebuan k-i-ni, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, Bikol, Pampangan, Sulu, and Bagobo i-ni, and Magindanao i-ni-a.

To occurs in all the forms of Tagalog i-to, Cebuan k-i-to-t, Hiliguayna i-to-n, Samaro-Leytean i-to, Ilokan day-to-y, Ibanag ya-tu-n, ya-tu-n-ye, in Bagobo to, to-y, to-i-go, probably in Magindanao en-tu, Sulu ie-tu, and in all the forms derived from the stems, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, and Samaro-Leytean adto, Harayan ag-to, and Bikol id-to. The second t of the Cebuan forms kitot, etc.; kadtot, etc., is probably due to incomplete reduplication. The final ye of the Ibanag forms is to be explained as the ye in yajje (<*yad-ye). Bagobo-go is an emphatic particle which is also used in sentences with non-verbal predicate, e. g., si kona mapia-go manobo 'you are a good man.' The en- of Magindanao entu seems to be the same as the en in Sulu i-en.

Ya occurs in all the forms of Tagalog, Bikol, and Pampangan i-ya-n; of Pangasinan sa-ya; in the Ibanag final syllable ye for *ya-i in yoye, yajje, yujje, yojje, yatunye; and perhaps in Harayan dia (all forms), Nabaloi iai, Batan nooya, and Bagobo yango. Harayan dia probably stands for *di-ya (cf.

 $^{^1}$ Ny, the definite article in Madagascan, is probably identical with this root particle, cf. Parker, op. cit., p. 45.

sia = siya, p. 381, below). Nabaloi iai may be simply a shortened form of saidiai, sadiai, or it may be analyzed as ia + ligature i, or as a root particle a preceded by articular i, and followed by the ligature i. Bagobo yango contains the particle go and an element yan which is probably ya + the ligature n.

Au occurs in Tagalog y-ao-n, ni-y-ao-n, and in all the forms of Ibanag y-au, yoye (<*y-au-ye), Batan au, and Sulu i-au-n. In the Tagalog forms yoon, niyoon, the first element of the a of ao seems to have been assimilated to o; nion is contracted from niyoon; noon and doon seemed to be formed on the basis of yoon, the case signs n and d being substituted for y. The Ibanag forms yod, yojje (<*yod-ye), yora present a blend of yau and the forms with d, having the vocalism of yau, and the d of the latter forms.

Na is found in all the forms of Cebuan ka-na, Hiliguayna ya-na, Magindanao a-na-n, and perhaps of Harayan dan if it is a shortened form of *da-na. In the Harayan forms, however, the root particle may be a, identical with the root particle of Tagalog ang.

Ti, identical with the ti of the Ilokan definite article, occurs in all the forms of Pampangan i-ti.

Ta occurs in all the forms of Pampangan i-ta, Pangasinan sa-ta-n, Ilokan day-ta, and in Nabaloi sa-ta-n, su-ta-n and i-ta-n.

Ma occurs in all the forms of Pangasinan and Nabaloi sama-n, etc.

En occurs in Sulu i-en and Magindanao en-tu, the tu of the latter form being the demonstrative root particle to.

The case indicating prefixes of the demonstratives are, in Tagalog i, ni, n, di, d; in Cebuan k, sa, s, di, d, i, kan, ni; in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean i, s, sa; in Harayan d, di(?), ka, k; in Pampangan i, ni, ka, da; in Pangasinan sa, a, i, to, da, so, na, ed; in Ilokan i, da, dag; in Nabaloi sa, su, i; in Ibanag i, n, t, da, an (?), takka, takkua; in Batan u; in Magindanao a, i, in Sulu and Bagobo i.

The prefix i (y before a vowel) which is found in most of the languages as the sign of the nominative case is apparently identical with the articular root particle i. The i of the oblique

¹ This i is found also in the Malay demonstratives i-ni 'this,' i-tu 'that;' and in all the demonstratives in Madagascan, e.g., i-ty 'this, cf. Parker, $op.\ cit.$, p. 41.

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singular in Ilokan, however, is probably a prepositional particle (cf. above, p. 344). Batan u is identical with the u of the definite article; ni, the most common sign of the genitive, is identical with the ni of the personal article: sa, ka, kan, di and takkua are identical with articular oblique forms sa, ka, kan, di and takkua; da is the root particle of the third person plural that has already been met with in the articles; in Ilokan the da seems to have lost its plural force, being used as a simple initial demonstrative element in both singular and plural, the plural being indicated by da with an additional plural sign g, viz., dag; Pangasinan so, na, ed are case forms of the definite article; Pangasinan and Nabaloi sa is identical with the sa of the article say; Pangasinan and Magindanao a is probably the same a as in Tagalog ang; Pangasinan to is the genitive of the pronoun of the third person singular; Nabaloi su is to be connected with the articles, Pangasinan so, Magindanao su; Pampangan ke and de are contracted respectively from ka-i and da-i, with articular i; Ibanag takka is a double oblique sign, standing for *ta-ka < *sa-ka (cf. above, pp. 333, 336); for an of the Ibanag nominative plural, cf. below, p. 356 f.

When the case sign consists of a single consonant it is usually to be explained as derived from forms with a fuller case sign under the influence of proportional analogy. For example, the s of the genitive-oblique in Hiliguayna and Samaro-Leytean is probably derived from sa, a series like Samaro-Leytean adto, sadto (< sa-adto) giving rise to forms like sini, sito on the basis of ini, ito. Similarly Tagalog n and d in the forms noon, doon are probably derived from the fuller forms ni and di; Cebuan and Harayan k, sa, s, and d of the nominative are probably based on the articular oblique forms ka, sa and di (for the use of these oblique forms in the nominative, cf. below, p. 388); Harayan k in kagto is certainly derived from the oblique form ka; Ibanag n and t of the genitive and oblique respectively seem to be derived from the articular forms na and ta.

Sometimes the case signs are prefixed to a case form, sometimes directly to the demonstrative root particle, sometimes to a demonstrative stem consisting of a root particle combined with a prefix, usually articular in character. These prefixes are a, i and u identical with articular a, i and u (cf. below, p. 361), and ad, id, ag of uncertain origin. It is not impossible that

ad, id and ag contain the articular particles a and i followed by a connective g, which is preserved in Harayan, and which is perhaps related to ug, the sign of the indefinite object in Cebuan; Cebuan and Bikol d representing a partial assimilation of this g to the following dental t. Bikol id is probably modified from ad under the influence of the initial i of the other demonstratives ini, iyan.

In Tagalog the case signs are usually prefixed directly to the demonstrative root particle, e. g., i-to, ni-to, di-to. In the nominative y-a-ri, y-i-ri, the case sign i is prefixed to the stems a-ri, i-ri; y-ri seems to be a modification of y-iri due to the r; in the genitives ni-y-a-on, ni-y-on the case sign is prefixed to the nominative; for other forms of y-a-on, cf. above.

In Cebuan the case signs are all prefixed to demonstrative stems, viz., a-ri, i-ni, i-tot, ad-to, a-na, except in the nominatives itot, diri, where the case signs i, di are prefixed to the root particle. The forms ari, adto are without case signs.

In Hiliguayna the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in i-ni, i-na and i-ton, but to a demonstrative stem in y-ana, y-adto; the genitive-oblique sign s is prefixed to the first three nominatives; in the others, it replaces the nominative case sign; another series of genitive oblique forms are made by prefixing sa to these forms with s.

In Samaro-Leytean the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in i-ni, i-to, but to a demonstrative stem in y-adto; the form adto, as in Cebuan, is without case sign; the genitive-oblique case sign s is prefixed to the nominatives ini, ito, adto, the genitive-oblique sign sa, as in Hiliguayna, to the forms with s.

In Harayan the nominative is made by prefixing d to the stems an (cf. above, p. 353) and ag-to, and di to the root particle in dia (cf. above, p. 352); the genitive-oblique is made by prefixing the case sign to the nominative, except in kagto, where the nominative case sign is simply changed to k.

In Bikol the nominative case sign is prefixed to the root particle in i-ni and i-yan; the i in idto is probably not the prefix i, but is due to analogical influences (cf. above); the genitive-oblique is made by prefixing the case sign ka to what is apparently the nominative.

¹ Cf. Nabaloi era 'they' for *ira, p. 383.

In Pampangan the articular particles of the nominative and genitive singular are prefixed directly to the stem, e. g., i-ni, ni-ni; that of the oblique singular, to either the genitive or nominative, e. g., ka-nini, keni (<*ka-ini): to form the nominative-genitive plural the plural particle da is prefixed to the nominative singular, e. g., deni (<*da-ini), and the oblique plural is made from this form by prefixing ka, e. g., ka-reni.

In Pangasinan the nominative singular may begin with the stem as in Samaro-Leytean adto, or may take the articular prefixes sa, a, and i, e. g., tan, sa-tan, a-tan, i-tan; the nominative plural is formed by prefixing to the stem the particle da or its combinations with the articular prefixes sa and i, viz., sara, ira, e. g., ra-tan, sa-ra-tan, i-ra-tan: the genitive, singular and plural, is formed by prefixing to the stem the genitive singular and plural, respectively of the pronoun of the third person, the two elements being joined by the ligature n, e. g., to-n-tan, da-n-tan: the oblique, singular and plural, is always, and the other cases may be, indicated by the nominative with initial sa preceded by the forms of the definite article, e. g., ed satan, ed saratan; so satan, na satan, so saratan, na saratan.

In Ilokan the nominative-genitive singular may begin with the root particle, or may take the prefix day, a combination of the plural particle da and the articular prefix i, e. g., toy, da-y-toy; the nominative-genitive plural is formed from the nominative singular by substituting for da a particle dag consisting of plural particle da+a pluralizing g; the da of the singular is borrowed from the plural, where it has apparently lost its plural significance, owing to the presence of an additional plural sign g; the oblique singular is made by prefixing a prepositional particle i (cf. above, p. 344) to the short form of the nominative, e. g., i-toy, or by placing the oblique of the article before the long form of the nominative, as in Pangasinan, e. g., iti daytoy; the oblique plural is formed by prefixing ka to the nominative-genitive plural, e. g., ka-dagitoy.

In Ibanag the case signs of the singular are prefixed directly to the root particle as in y-au, or to a demonstrative stem as in y-a-ri, y-u-ri; in the plural the case signs are prefixed to the genitive singular, the sign of the nominative being the plural particle da, or a particle an of uncertain identity, that of the genitive, the particle da, that of the oblique one of the com-

pounds takkara, takkuara, equivalent to the particle da preceded by the oblique case sign takka, takkua. In the nominative singular there are also a series of forms without the case sign y, e. g., au: it is not impossible that the plural forms like annau may have been made from plural forms like danau by dropping the initial d after the analogy of pairs like yau, au in the singular; in this case the doubling of the n would be phonetic.

The declension of the demonstratives in the remaining languages is not given in the grammars. The cases are probably indicated by the forms of the definite article. The nominative case signs a, i and u occur prefixed to the root particle in Nabaloi i-tan, i-man; Magindanao, a-nan, i-nia; Sulu and Bagobo i-ni, Sulu i-en, i-aun; Batan u-ri: Sulu ietu is perhaps a modification of *i-tu with articular i, due to the influence of the initial ie of the synonymous ien: for Nabaloi iai, Bagobo yango, cf. above, p. 352 f. The nominative case signs sa and su are found in the remaining Nabaloi forms prefixed to the root particle except in saidiai, which probably contains sa prefixed to a stem beginning with articular i.

The connective particles which are used in the formation of the demonstratives are n, i (y), a and ai (ay).

Noccurs as final in all the forms of Tagalog, Bikol, and Pampangan iya-n, Tagalog yao-n, Hiliguayna ito-n, Pangasinan sata-n and sama-n, Ibanag yatu-n, in Nabaloi sata-n, suta-n, ita-n, sama-n, ima-n, Magindanao ana-n, and Sulu iau-n: the same n occurs followed by another element in all the forms of Ibanag yatu-n-ye, and in Bagobo ya-n-go. This n is also used in Pangasinan to connect the genitive case signs to and da with the root particle (cf. above, p. 356). The n of all the forms of Harayan dan may also belong here (cf. above, p. 353).

I, or as it is usually written y, occurs as final element in all the forms of Ilokan dayto-y, in all the Ibanag forms with final element ye (<*ya-i, cf. above, p. 331), and in Nabaloi ia-i, Bagobo to-y; it occurs followed by another element in Bagobo to-i-yo, and in the double ligature ai.

A seems to occur as final element in Magindanao ini-a, and in the double ligature ai.

Ai, a combination of the two ligatures a and i, occurs as final element in all the forms of Ilokan dedi-ay, and in Nabaloi saidi-ai, sadi-ai, and perhaps iai (cf. above, p. 353).

Interrogative Pronouns.

The interrogative pronouns are of three kinds:

- a) The personal interrogative 'who?' referring to persons;
- b) the neuter interrogative 'what?' referring to things;
- c) the individualizing interrogative 'which?' referring to either persons or things.

In general the interrogatives consist of root particles, some of which seem to be of adverbial origin, combined with prefixes and suffixes similar to those of the demonstratives.

Case, in those interrogatives which are inflected, is indicated by the prefixes. The plural is indicated sometimes by the articular prefix, sometimes by reduplication, or by both together; sometimes by the suffix.

Some of the interrogatives cannot be broken up into monosyllablic particles, but for the sake of completeness they are all included in the discussion.

The forms of the interrogatives in the various languages are, viz.:

	Pers. Inter.			NEUT. INTER.
Tag.	nom. sg. sino pl. sinosino	gen. nino, kanino (sa) ninonino, (sa) kanikanino	obl. kanino kanikanin	ano o anoano
Bis. (Ceb.)	kinsa, kinsalan	(kansa, kansalan	sakansa)¹	unsa, unsalan
Bis. (Hil.)	sin-o	sin-o, ni sin-o kay sin-o, kalin-o	kay sin-o kalin-o	ano
		kanin-o	kanin-o	
Bis. (SamLe	ey.) sin-o	kanay, nin-o	kanay, sa kanay san kana sin kana	ay,
Bik.	sg. siisay $pl.$ saisay	niisay naisay, kaisay	kiisay kaisay	ano
Pamp.	sg. nino $pl.$ dinino, deno	nino, kanino dinino, deno	keno kareno	nanu
Pang.	sg. siopa, opa pl. siopara	opa opara	ed siopa ed siopara	anto

¹ Little used.

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ania
                  asino, asinno,
Ilok.
                   asin
                                                                 dyano,
                                                                 nĝaramto(i)
Igor. (Nab.)
                  sepa, sepay
                                                    takkuanini
                                                                   anni
Than.
                                  nini
              sg. sinni
                                                     takkuarani
                                                     takkuarani-
              pl. dani, danirani
                                   dani
                                                                 ngain, antuna
                  tingin, antain
Mag.
                  sio, hisio
Sulu
                                                                 uno
                                                                 andin
Bag.
                  sadan
                                INDIV. INTER.
                                                                 obl.
                    nom.
                                            gen.
              sg. alin
Tag.
              pl. alinalin
                  hain
Bis.
Bik.
                  arin
              sg. insa,1 insanu1
Pamp.
                                     ningsa, ningsanu
                                                         kingsa, kingsanu
                                                         kaningsa, kaningsanu
              pl. dingsa, dingsanu dingsa, dingsanu
                                                         karingsa, karingsanu
Pang.
                  dinan
                  adinno, adino,
Ilok.
                     adin
                  chinan, tua, twai
Igor. (Nab.)
Iban.
              sg. yasi
                                     nasi
                                                         tasi
              pl. danasi
                                     danasi
                                                        (no oblique)
Sulu
                  hadien
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As the case forms of the interrogatives are comparatively few, they will be analyzed in connection with the discussion of the root particles.

A root particle no is found in all the forms of the personal interrogative in Tagalog, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean (except kanay and derived forms), Pampangan, and Ilokan; in the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan and Ilokan, and

¹ The initial in in these forms is without doubt the article ing; in this the most common case form of the word, ng has been partially assimulated to the following s, a change which has apparently not taken place in the other case forms.

perhaps in the neuter interrogatives ano, uno. The glottal catch in Bisayan -n-o is probably secondary. In Ibanag, no occurs in the form ni, in the personal, and perhaps in the neuter interrogative, the i of which is due to the influence of final i of the individualizing interrogative yasi.

The nominative singular of the personal interrogatives derived from no is made by prefixing the personal article si to the particle, except in Pampangan, where ni, ordinarily a genitive sign, but also used for the nominative in Ilokan, is employed. The initial a of Ilokan a-sino is perhaps due to the analogy of the neuter interrogative ania; asin is a shortened form of asino. The doubling of the n in Ilokan asinno, Ibanag sinni, is phonetic.

The genitive singular is made with the case signs ni and ka. Ni is prefixed directly to the particle no in Tagalo nino, Samaro-Leytean nin-o, Pampangan nino, Ibanag nini; in Hiliguayna ni sin-o it is prefixed to the nominative. Ka is prefixed to the genitive with ni in Tagalog, Pampangan, and Hiliguayna. Hiliguayna kalin-o seems to be derived from kanin-o by dissimilation, the first n being changed to the related sound l. Hiliguayna also possesses a form made by prefixing kay, the oblique of the personal article, to the nominative, viz., kay sin-o.

The oblique case in Tagalog is identical with the genitive form with case sign ka, or is made by placing the oblique of the definite article before this form; in Hiliguayna it is identical with the genitive forms beginning with k; in Pampangan the oblique keno is probably a modification of ka-no with case sign ka, based on the analogy of the oblique cases with initial ke in the demonstrative and personal pronouns; in Ibanag the oblique case sign takkua (cf. above, p. 347) is prefixed to the genitive.

In Tagalog the cases of the plural are made by reduplicating two syllables of the corresponding singular form. In the Pampangan nominative-genitive plural there are two forms, viz., dinino, made by prefixing di, the root of the inclusive article, to the singular nino, and deno, probably modified from di-no after the analogy of the plurals of demonstratives with initial de. The oblique is made by prefixing ka to deno. In the Ibanag plural, dani consists of ni with prefixed plural particle

da, danirani is a reduplication of this form, and the oblique forms consist of the case sign takkua prefixed to these two forms.

It is not impossible that the neuter interrogative ano is a combination of no with an articular prefix a, but it may also be explained as containing the root particle an. The u of Sulu uno, if it is to be analyzed as u-no, and is not simply a phonetic modification of ano, is probably the same u which is used in Batan as definite article.

No also occurs as the final syllable nu, no of the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan and Ilokan.

This stem no is perhaps identical with the particle no which is the word for 'if,' in Ilokan, Ibanag, and Pangasinan, the ideas of 'doubting' and 'questioning' being very similar.

A root particle sa occurs in all the forms of the personal interrogative in Cebuan, Bikol, and Bagobo, the neuter interrogative in Cebuan, and the individualizing interrogative in Pampangan.

The initial k of the Cebuan personal interrogative forms is probably the same which occurs as the sign of the nominative in the demonstratives. The case in this pronoun seems to be indicated not according to the usual rule by initial inflection, but by the difference of the vowel after the initial, i indicating the nominative, a the genitive-oblique. ticles in, an, un, which precede sa in Cebuan and Pampangan, seem to consist of the articular particles i, a, u + the ligature; this seems to be shown by the fact that the in of the Pampangan forms is declined like the definite article. The final element lan of the Cebuan forms is perhaps to be connected with Tagalog alin, Bikol arin. The nu of insanu is to be connected with the stem no. The case forms of the Pampangan individualizing interrogative all consist of sa or sanu preceded by the proper case form of the definite article, except in the oblique singular, where additional forms are made by prefixing ka to the genitive, following the analogy of the plural.

The forms of the Bikol personal interrogative are based on an element isay, composed of sa with prefixed articular i and following ligature i. To this stem the case forms of the personal and inclusive articles are prefixed in singular and plural respectively, ka being equivalent to Cebuan ka (cf. p. 348).

In Bagobo sa-dan, dan seems to be the genitive plural of the third person, just as the din of an-din 'what?' is the genitive singular (cf. below).

This interrogative root particle sa is perhaps identical with the adverbial particle sa which means 'perhaps' in Ilokan, and in Tagalog is equivalent to the modal adverb sana which imparts to verbs the idea of 'should, would.'

The forms of the personal interrogative in Pangasinan and Nabaloi are clearly connected with Malay apa 'what?' siapa 'who?' Pa may be root particle and the prefixes articular; o of the Pangasinan forms being equal to Batan u; se of the Nabaloi forms, to sa-i, as in saidiai 'this;' a of Malay apa, to the a of Tagalog ang. The si of the Pangasinan and Malay forms is of course the personal article, and it is also not impossible that Nabaloi se may be some modification of si. The final y of Nabaloi sepay is ligature. In Pangasinan the form without si is used as genitive, and the oblique is made by placing the oblique of the definite article ed before the nominative. The plural is made by adding ra (< da) to the forms of the singular.

The root particle of the neuter interrogatives in Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Bagobo is an, and the same an is perhaps the root particle of all the other neuter interrogatives except the Cebuan and Sulu, and the forms $n\tilde{g}aramto(i)$, $n\tilde{g}anto$, $n\tilde{g}ain$; Sulu uno, however, may be a modification of ano (cf. above, p. 361).

The o, u of Tagalog, Bisayan, and Bikol an-o, Pampangan nan-u, Nabaloi dyan-o, according to this view, is probably due to the analogy of sino or some other interrogative form containing the particle no; the initial n of the Pampangan form is doubtless derived from nino; the initial dy (=*y) in Nabaloi is probably articular. The final i of Ibanag anni, in which the doubling is phonetic, is probably due to the same cause as the final i in sinni.

In Pangasinan an-to and Bagobo an-din (cf. inter. sa-dan, above) the second element is apparently the genitive of the pronoun of the third person, literally 'it's what?' just as in Nabaloi the common word for 'what' is n\u00e3aram-to 'its name?' The first part of Magindanao an-tu-na seems to be identical with Pangasinan anta; na is perhaps identical with the genitive of the definite article, the root particle in this case being followed

by a double genitive. Ilokan ania is to be analysed in the same way, as an + an element ia equivalent to the ya of the third personal pronoun.

The stem an seems also to occur in some of the personal and individualizing interrogatives, viz., in Magindanao antain, Pangasinan di-n-an, Nabaloi chi-n-an.

This an is perhaps identical with the locative suffix an of nouns and verbs.

For Nabaloi $n\tilde{g}aramto$, cf. above; the *i* of $n\tilde{g}aramto$ -*i* is ligature; $n\tilde{g}anto$ is contracted from $n\tilde{g}aramto$, *m* being assimilated to the following *t*.

Tagalog alin (<*arin cf. above, p. 333), Bikol arin seems to be based on a stem ar, the ending in being probably the same as the in in Bisayan hain, and perhaps Magindanao tingin, antain, ngain. This suffix in is different from the in of Tagalog ak-in 'mine' (cf. below, p. 368), as this in would appear in Bisayan and Bikol as on, un, in Magindanao as en (cf. above, p. 331). The same stem occurs perhaps also in the Cebuan forms kinsalan, kansalan, unsalan which may be contracted from *kinsa-alan, etc., al (<*ar) being in this case combined with a suffix an identical with that in Tagalog haan 'where?' which bears the same formal relation to hain as *alan does to alin. This suffix an is doubtless ultimately identical with the locative suffix an.

The Ibanag individualizing interrogative is clearly connected with the interrogative adverb dasi, the element asi being the same. This element asi forms its cases like the demonstrative pronouns (cf. above, p. 356 f.).

The idea of 'which?' is closely related to the idea of 'where?' as we see in the two practically synonymous expressions 'which is the road?' and 'where is the road?' Hence it is not surprising that the two ideas are sometimes expressed by the same word, as in Bisayan hain, Nabaloi twa, twai, Sulu hadien, which mean both 'which?' and 'where?'

As 'where?' is practically an oblique case, we might expect the initial syllables to be identical with the oblique case signs in these individualizing pronouns, and so they seem to be. The

 $^{^{1}}$ Cf. my paper, Analogies between Semitic and Tagalog, JHU. Circs., No. 163, p. 65.

ha of Bisayan ha-in, Sulu ha-dien is to be connected with the oblique of Sulu definite article ha. This ha also occurs in Tagalog in ha-an 'where?' The in of Bisayan hain is difficult (cf. above, p. 363). For the dien of Sulu hadien see below.

The di of Pangasinan di-nan, Nabaloi chi-nan (<*di-nan), Ilokan a-di-no, etc., and Sulu ha-di-en is probably identical with the oblique articular form di. The nan of the Pangasinan and Nabaloi forms is probably the interrogative stem an with preceding ligature n, used to connect the prefix to the root particle as it is in the genitive of the demonstratives in Pangasinan (cf. above, p. 356). The initial a of the Ilokan forms is to be explained like the a of asino; the doubling in adinno is phonetic; adin is a shortened form of adino, like asin from asino. The final no of these forms is probably identical with the interrogative root particle no.

The en of Sulu hadien is probably connected with the demonstrative particle en (cf. above, p. 353).

Nabaloi tua is perhaps identical with Cebuan tua 'be there;' the i of twa-i is ligature.

The remaining interrogative forms, Samaro-Leytean kanay, Magindanao tingin, antain, ngain, Sulu sio, hisio, are not clear. Kanay contains, of course, the case sign ka or k; its ending suggests a comparison with the Bikol forms; in the oblique it may be preceded by sa and san, respectively oblique and genitive of the definite article, and by sin the sign of the indefinite object. The Magindanao forms all have the ending in (cf. above, p. 363); antain probably contains also the interrogative stem an; ngain may be a combination of nga identical with the ligature, and the suffix in. Sulu sio seems to contain the personal article si, which, however, is not used as such in Sulu; while hisio has prefixed, in addition, the regular Sulu personal article hi.

Personal Pronouns.

The personal pronouns are of three persons, first, second, and third; each person has two numbers, a singular and a plural, and the plural of the first person again distinguishes two series of forms, an exclusive and an inclusive series (cf. above, p. 325); the first person in some languages possesses also a dual which is

closely related morphologically to the inclusive plural; there is no distinction of gender even in the third person.

Case is indicated partly by prefixes similar to those of the demonstratives and interrogatives, partly by using different root particles and stems.

The personal pronouns consist of simple root particles, modified forms of root particles, and forms derived from the root particles by the addition of prefixes and suffixes.

First Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the first person in the various languages are, viz.:

		nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sg.	ako	akin, ko, (nakin)1	sa akin
-	pl. ex.	kami	amin, namin	sa amin
	pl.~inc.	tayo	atin, natin	sa atin
	du.	kita, kata	ata, kanita; ta	sa ata, sa kanita
Bis. (Ceb.)	sg.	akó	áko, nako, ko, ta	kanako, sa ako
	pl. ex.	kami	amo, namo	kanamo, sa amo
	pl.~inc.	kíta	áto, náto, ta	kanáto, sa áto
	du.	kitá	ató, nató, ta	kanató, sa ató
Bis. (Hil.)	sg.	ako	akon, nakon, ko,	kanakon, sa akon,
			ta	dakon, karakon
	pl. ex.	kami	amon, namon	kanamon, sa amon,
				damon, karamon
	pl.~inc.	kita	aton, naton, ta	kanaton, sa aton,
				daton, karaton
Bis. (Sam)	Ley.) sg .	ako, si ako	akon, nakon, ko	sa akon, dakon
	pl. ex.	kami, si kami	amon, namon	sa amon, damon
	_	kita, si kita	aton, naton, ta	sa aton, daton
Bis. (Har.)	sg.	ako, akota	akon, nakon, ta	kanakun
Bik.	sg.	ako	ko, niako, sako, sakoya	sako, sakoya
	pl. ex.	kami	niamo, samo, samoya, mi	samo, samoya²
	pl. inc.	kita	niato, sato,	sato, satoya
Program and the same and the sa			satoya, ta	

¹ Used only in the phrase a-nakin 'inquam.'

² Written damoya, evidently a mistake, in San Augustín.

		nom.	gen.	obl.
Pamp.	sg.	ako, ko	ko, koo, ke, kee,	kanako, kako
			da	
	pl. ex.	ikami, ike,	mi	kekami, keke
		kami, ke		
	pl. inc.	ikamo, ita,	tamo, ta	$\mathbf{kekatam}\ (sic),$
		katamo, kata,		kekata
		tamo, ta		
-		ikata, kata, ta	ta, tee, too	kekata
Pang.		siak, ak	ko, -k	ed siak
	-	sikami, kami	mi	ed sikami
	pl. inc.	sikiti, sikatayo,	ti, tayo	ed sikiti, ed
	7	iti, itayo		sikatayo
T1 1		sikata, ita	ta	ed sikata
Ilok.	_	siak, ak	ko, -k	kaniak
	-	dakami, kami	mi	kadakami
		datayo, tayo	tayo	kadatayo
T (NT-1-)		data, ta	ta	kadata
Igor. (Nab.)	sg.	sikak, ak; nak,	ko, -k, na, ta	
	m1 am	na sikame, kame	mo	
	-	sikatayo, tayo	me	
Iban.		sakan, sok, ak	tayo ku, -k, ta	niakan, niok
IDan.		sikami, kami	mi	nikami
	pl. inc.		tam	nittam
	-	itta	ta	nitta
Bat.		yakin, ako	niakin, ko	diakin
240	•	yamuen, kami	niamuen, namin,	diamuen
	P. C.	<i>J</i>	namuen	
	pl. inc.	yaiatin,² ta		
Mag.		saki, aku	ku, salaki, laki	salaki, sa salaki
J	_	salkami, kami	salkami, nami, lekami	salkami, sa salkami

¹ Written iamo, evidently a mistake, in Bergaño.

² Perhaps a mistake for yatin, cf. yamuen. The forms given as genitive and oblique of this pronoun evidently belong to the pronoun of the second person. The Batan grammar from which these paradigms are quoted by Retana (cf. above, p. 323, ft. nt. 2) is in manuscript, according to Retana (p. xl) probably a copy of the original. The personal pronouns are given in the order, 1st sg., 1st exc. pl., 2nd sg., and then follows a paradigm headed 'Plur. de yo inclusivo,' but with genitive and oblique apparently belonging to the second plural; no paradigm of the second plural is given. The copyist has evidently mixed up the paradigms of the 1st inc. pl. and 2nd pl. The forms that we should expect in 1st inc. pl. gen. and obl. are niatin, diatin.

Mag.	pl. inc. salkitanu, seki- tanu, tanu, lekitanu	salkitanu, tanu, sa sa salkitanu	ılkitanu, sa salki- tanu
	du. salkita, sekita, ta	salkita, sekita, ta, lekita	salkita, sa salkita
Sulu.	sg.¹ aku, ku	ku, kaaku	
	pl. ex. kami	kaamu, kannamu, kanamu	
	pl. inc. kita	kaatu	
Bag.	sg. sakkan	ko	kanakkan
	pl. ex. kami, ke, si kami	de	kanami
	pl. inc.2 kita, si kita	ta, nita	kanita

The pronouns of the first person singular are practically all based on one of the root particles ak, ko, or ta.

Ak is found uncombined as nominative in Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag: also in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Pampangan, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu nominative ako, aku; in the ako, aku of the genitive and oblique cases in Bikol and Sulu, and in Harayan ako-ta; in the Tagalog and Batan stem ak-in and Bisayan stem ak-on, ák-o and their derivatives; in the nominatives, Pangasinan and Ilokan si-ak, Nabaloi sik-ak, Ibanag s-ak-an, s-ok (cf. above, p. 336), Bagobo s-ak-kan, and the oblique forms derived from them; in the Magindanao secondary stem aki in s-aki, etc.; in Nabaloi n-ak.

The nominative ako may represent a blend of the two root particles ak and ko, or it may be ak with an analogical o as in ikao 'thou' (cf. below, p. 375), due to the influence of other nominatives in o like tayo 'we,' kayo 'you.' In Harayan ako-ta the genitive ta is added to this form, probably for the sake of emphasis' (cf. Nab. sikam 'thou,' p. 375, below).

The Magindanao stem aki probably owes its final i to the analogy of the forms of the exclusive plural kami, etc. The n of Nabaloi n-ak is not clear; the form na, which seems to be

¹ The noun patek 'slave' is also used for 'I,' as in Malay.

² These pronouns as given together in the paradigms as the equivalent of nosotros 'we,' but there is probably the same distinction here as in the other languages; for ke as exclusive plural cf. Pampangan.

³ Cf. my paper, The Bisayan Dialects, cited above, p. 127.

employed principally before verbal forms beginning with k, e. g., na-kaama-munu 'I am killing,' is probably a modification of nak, due to the fact that the final k of the pronoun and the initial k of the verb coalesce.

The Tagalog, Batan, and Bisayan stems ak-in, ak-on are made by adding the suffixes in and on to the root particle. These suffixes, which are variants of the same original form (cf. above, p. 331 f.), are found also in the passive, and in nominal derivation. When applied to a noun they express the idea of 'like, similar,' e. g., Tag. uwakin 'cock black as a raven' from uwak 'raven,' polotin 'honey (pet name),' from polot 'honey;' when applied to a verb they form passives that denote to be directly affected by the action of the root, e. g., Tag. inumin (inum) 'that which is drunk.' The meaning of the suffix in the pronouns is perhaps nearer that of the verbal suffix, Tagalog ak-in, for example, signifying 'that which is affected by me, that which pertains or belongs to me.' In the Cebuan stem ák-o, the final n was dropped, doubtless because it was regarded as ligature. The ako, aku of the genitive and oblique forms in Bikol and Sulu may be either the nominative ako, aku, or may correspond to the Cebuan stem ák-o derived from ák-on. element ya of Bikol oblique s-ako-ya is not clear; it may be the demonstrative root particle ya (cf. above, p. 352).

The stems of Ibanag s-akan, Bagobo s-akkan, are probably identical, the doubling in the latter being phonetic, and consist of the root particle with a suffix an, doubtless the same as the nominal and verbal suffix an, which expresses the idea of place, e. g., Tag. sagingan 'banana grove' from saging 'banana,' inuman 'vessel (drinking place)' from inum 'drink.' These forms would therefore mean literally 'the I place.'

The particle ko occurs uncombined as genitive in all the languages except Harayan, and apparently as nominative in Pampangan and Sulu. In Pampangan it may be a shortened form of ako. In Sulu it is genitive used as nominative (cf. below, p. 388). The -k of Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag is a shortened form of ko. The Pampangan form koo, ke and kee are modifications of ko (cf. below, p. 387).

The particle ta occurs uncombined as genitive in Bisayan (except Samaro-Leytean), Nabaloi, and Ibanag. Pampangan da is probably a modification of this particle. It is found also in the Harayan nominative ako-ta (cf. above, p. 367).

The pronouns of the exclusive plural of the first person are practically all based on a particle mi, which occurs uncombined as genitive in Bikol, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag. It also occurs in Magindanao genitive na-mi, and in the nominative ka-mi of all the languages, and its derivatives with the various articular particles, viz., Pampangan i-kami, Samaro-Leytean, Pangasinan and Nabaloi si-kami, Ibanag si-kami, ni-kami, Ilokan da-kami, Magindanao le-kami, sal-kami, sa sal-kami, and the oblique forms derived from them in Pampangan, Pangasinan, and Ilokan. The element ka of kami is perhaps due to the analogy of other plural forms like kayo 'you,' kata 'we all, we two.'

In Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, and Sulu, there is apparently a root particle am that forms in general the same combination as the ak of the singular; for example, in Tagalog, amin corresponding to akin. It is very likely, however, that all these forms with am are simply made on the basis of mi, after the analogy of the forms of the singular. The final uen of the Batan forms is simply the representation of in after the labial m, of inumuen = Tagalog inumin 'drink.'

Pampangan and Bagobo ke in ke, i-ke is not clear. In Bagobo a particle de with the same vocalization, perhaps a modification of the plural particle da, is used as genitive.

At the base of the forms of the inclusive plural, and of the dual when it occurs, lies the particle ta, doubtless identical with the ta of the singular, which is found uncombined as genitive plural in Bisayan, Bikol, Pampangan and Bagobo; as genitive dual in Tagalog, Cebuan, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Magindanao; and as nominative plural in Batan, nominative dual in Pampangan, Ilokan, and Magindanao. The Pampangan forms tee, too are secondary modifications of ta (cf. below, p. 387). For Pangasinan ti, cf. below, p. 371.

Ta occurs also, combined with articular prefixes only, in Tagalog genitive dual ka-ni-ta and the oblique derived from it; Pampangan nominative plural, Pangasinan nominative dual i-ta; Ibanag dual forms i-tta, ni-tta, in which the doubling is phonetic; and in Bagobo ni-ta, Ilokan da-ta, and the oblique forms derived from them. It is found also in Tagalog genitive dual ata and the oblique derived from it, where the initial a is prob-

ably due to the analogy of the other genitive forms of the first person. For Pangasinan i-ti, cf. below, p. 371.

It occurs also combined with a following root particle of the second person, which probably emphasizes the inclusive signification of the pronoun, the combinations meaning literally 'your we,' 'the we of which you form a part,' in ta-yo, ta-mo, and ta-nu. Ta-yo occurs as nominative inclusive plural in Tagalog, Ilokan, and Nabaloi, and as genitive in Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi. It also occurs with various case indicating prefixes in the nominatives Pangasinan i-tayo, Ilokan da-tayo, Pangasinan and Nabaloi sika-tayo, and the oblique forms derived from the last two in Ilokan and Pangasinan. Ta-mo occurs in Pampangan uncombined as nominative and genitive, in the nominative ka-tamo, in which ka is doubtless due to the analogy of plural and dual forms with initial ka, like kayo 'you,' and the oblique ke-katam in which the final o of katamo is dropped; it is found also without o, in the Ibanag forms tam, i-ttam, ni-ttam, the doubling in the last two forms being phonetic. Ta-nu occurs only in Magindanao: as all the forms of the inclusive plural have a corresponding form in the dual without nu, it seems more likely that nu was added to what are now the forms of the dual, but which had originally both inclusive plural and dual meaning, in order to differentiate between the two numbers, than that the inclusive forms were made independently upon a base tanu.

Ta also occurs in the plural and dual forms ka-ta and ki-ta: ka is probably to be explained as the ka in ka-mi; ki-ta perhaps represents a blend of ka-ta with i-ta, which occurs as nominative dual in Pangasinan and Ibanag, nominative plural in Pampangan. Kata occurs uncombined as plural nominative in Pampangan, and as dual nominative in Tagalog and Pampangan. It is found in combination with articular prefixes in Pampangan nominative dual i-kata, oblique dual and plural ke-kata, Pangasinan nominative dual si-kata and the oblique derived from it. Kita occurs uncombined as nominative plural in Bisayan, Bikol, Sulu, and Bagobo, and as nominative dual in Tagalog and Cebuan: with articular prefixes in Samaro-Leytean and Bagobo si kita; in Magindanao, where it is the basis of most

¹ In Ilokan the pronouns of the first and second persons plural datayo, tayo, dakami, kami, dakayo, kayo, often drop their final vowel in the middle of a sentence; cf. Naves, op. cit., p. 49 f.; H. W. Williams, op. cit., pp. 55, 56.

of the forms of both dual and plural (cf. below, p. 373); and in Pangasinan si-kiti (cf. below), and the oblique derived from it.

In Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, and Sulu plural there is apparently a root particle at which is made on the basis of ta, after the analogy of the singular, in the same way as the am of the exclusive plural. The forms based on at are made in the same way as those based on am. In Cebuan the forms based on at are used also as dual, with, however, a different accent.

The Pangasinan plural forms ti, i-ti, si-kiti seem to be modifications of ta, i-ta, si-kita; the final i being probably due to the influence of the exclusive forms mi, kami, etc.

The case indicating particles which are found in the pronouns of the first person are, in Tagalog n, sa, kani, in Cebuan n, sa, ka(n), in Hiliguayna n, ka, ka(n), d, sa, in Samaro-Leytean si, n, d, sa, in Harayan n, ka(n), in Bikol ni, s, in Pampangan i, kan, k, ke, in Pangasinan si, i, ed, in Ilokan si, da, kani, ka, in Nabaloi si, sika, sik, in Ibanag si, s, i, ni, in Batan i, yai(?), ni, n, di, in Magindanao se, s, le, l, sal, na, sa, in Sulu ka, kan, in Bagobo si, s, ni, kan, ka.

The prefixes i, ni, n, sa, ka, di, d, da, ke, ed, and the oblique case sign s of Bikol have already been explained in connection with the demonstratives (cf. above, p. 353 f.); kani is a combination of the two articular particles ka and ni. In the Bisayan sign ka(n) it is difficult to say whether the n belongs to the case sign or the following stem, i. e., whether forms like Cebuan kanato are to be analysed as ka + the genitive forms like nato, or as kan + the genitive forms like ato. Si is identical with the si of the personal article, and s in Ibanag s-akan, Magindanao saki, Bagobo s-akkan, is doubtless based upon it; Magindanao se also is probably based on si, the e being due to the influence of the case sign le. Pampangan k in kako is derived from ka. a having coalesced with the a of ako. Nabaloi sika, sik in sikatayo, sik-ak are based upon a wrong division of forms like sikami, a combination of the stem kami with the case sign si; in sikak the a of sika coalesces with the a of ak. The apparent case sign yai in Batan yaiatin, if it is not simply due to a typographical error, is the result of the reduplication of the first syllable ya of yatin, a combination of the stem atin and case sign i. Magindanao na of na-mi is identical with the genitive of the definite article: since Magindanao has been strongly influenced by Arabic (cf. above, p. 322), the case sign le, l, which occurs in none of the other languages, may be the Arabic preposition J li, which is used to express a dative and sometimes a genitive idea; sal is a combination of this element with the case sign sa.

In the formation of the cases these particles are added, sometimes to a root particle, sometimes to a modified form of a root particle or to a secondary stem, sometimes to another case form. The forms of the nominative and genitive are often without case sign.

In the nominative, Samaro-Levtean has si in all numbers in the forms si ako, si kami, si kita: Pampangan has i in the plural and dual forms i-kami, i-ke, i-ta, i-kamo, i-kata: Pangasinan has si in all numbers in the forms si-ak, si-kami, si-kiti, si-kata; sika in sika-tayo; and i in inclusive plural and dual in the form i-ti, i-tayo, i-ta: Ilokan has si in the singular si-ak, and da in the plural and dual forms da-kami, etc.: Nabaloi has si in si-kame; sika, sik in sika-tayo, sik-ak: Ibanag has si in si-kami; s in s-akkan, s-ok; and i in i-ttam, i-tta: Batan has i(y) in all three numbers in y-akin, yaiatin (cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt.), y-amuen: Magindanao has s in s-aki; se in se-kitanu, se-kita; le in le-kitanu; and sal in plural and dual sal-kami, sal-kitanu, sal-kita; the forms with le and sal are genitiveoblique forms used as nominative: Bagobo has s in the singular s-akkan; si in the plurals si kami, si kita. Nominative forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle, a secondary stem, or some modification of these, are found in all the languages, Tagalog, Bisayan (except Samaro-Leytean), Bikol and Sulu having only forms of this kind.

In the genitive in Tagalog, Bisayan, and Batan there are a number of forms made on the basis of stems derived from the root particles ak, am, and at by the addition of the suffix, in, en, on. For the analogical character of the forms of the plural cf. above, pp. 369, 371. These stems occur in Tagalog and Bisayan both uncombined, and with case sign n, e. g., Hil. ak-on, n-ak-on, in Batan only with the case signs ni or n, e. g., ni-amuen, n-amuen.

In Bikol the case signs of the genitive ni, s are prefixed in the singular to ako, which is either nominative or identical with Cebuan genitive ako, in the plural to the stems amo, ato, made after the analogy of ako. In Sulu the stems aku, amu, atu, to

which the ease signs ka, kan are prefixed, are susceptible of the same two explanations as the Bikol forms. The double n in kannamu is perhaps due to the analogy of forms like kan-nia 'his' (cf. below, p. 385).

In Magindanao in the singular the case signs l and sal are prefixed to the secondary stem aki; in the plural and dual the case signs are all prefixed to the stems kami, kitanu, kita except in na-mi, where na is prefixed to the root particle. In Bagobo the case sign ni is prefixed to the root particle in ni-ta. Genitive forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or secondary stem, or of some modification of these, are found in all the languages, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag having only genitives of this kind.

In the oblique, Tagalog prefixes sa to the forms of the genitive beginning with a, and in the dual also to the genitive with case sign kani: Cebuan has two series of forms, one in which sa is prefixed to genitive forms with initial a, one in which ka(n)is prefixed to genitive forms (cf. above, p. 371): Hiliguayna has four series of forms, two like those in Cebuan, one in which the case sign d is prefixed to forms with initial a, one in which an additional case sign ka is prefixed to the forms with initial d: Samaro-Leytean has two series of forms identical with the Hiliguayna forms with initial sa and d: Harayan has apparently only one series, identical with the series with initial k: the Bikol oblique forms are identical with the genitives with initial s: Pampangan makes its oblique singular by prefixing kan and k to ako, probably the nominative, the oblique of the other members by prefixing ka to the nominative with articular i, ka + ibecoming ke: Pangasinan prefixes ed to the nominative with articular si: Ilokan makes its oblique singular by prefixing kani to the root ak, the oblique of the other numbers by prefixing ka to the nominative with initial da: Ibanag substitutes ni, Batan di, for the case signs of the nominative: in Magindanao, the oblique case signs sal or sa sal are prefixed to the same stems as in the genitive.

Second Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the second person are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sg. ikao, ka	iyo, mo (niyo)1	sa iyo
O	pl. kayo, (kamo)	inyo, ninyo	sa inyo
Bis. (Ceb.)	sg. ikao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo, sa imo
, ,	pl. kamo	inyo, ninyo	kaninyo, sa inyo
Bis. (Hil.)	sg. ikao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo, sa imo,
			dimo, karimo
	pl. kamo	inyo, ninyo	kaninyo, sa inyo,
			dinyo, karinyo
Bis. (SamLey.)) $sg.$ ikao, ka, si ika	o imo, nimo, mo	sa imo, dimo
	pl. kamo, si kamo	iyo, niyo	sa iyo, diyo
Bis. (Har.)	sg. ikao, kao, ka	imo, nimo, mo	kanimo
Bik.	sg. ika	mo, nimo, saimo, simo	saimo, simo
	pl. kamo	nindo	saindo
Pamp.	sg. ika, ka	mo, moo, me,	keka²
		mee^2	
	pl. ikayo, kayo, iko, ko	yo, yoo, ye, yee	kekayo, keko
$\operatorname{Pang}_{ullet}$	sg. sika, ka	mo, -m	ed sika
	pl. sikayo, siki, kayo, ki	yo	ed sikayo, ed siki
Ilok.	sg. sika, ka	mo, -m	kenka
	pl. dakayo, kayo	yo	kadakayo
Igor. (Nab.)	sg. sikam, ka	mo, -m	
	pl. sikayo, kayo	dyo	
Iban.	sg. sikau, ka	mu, -m	nikau
	pl. sikamu, kamu	nu	nikamu
Bat.	sg. imu, ka	nimo, mo	dimo
	pl. ³	ninio, nio	dinio
Mag.	sg. ka, saleka,	nengka, saleka,	salka, sa salka
	\mathbf{seka}	sa salka, leka, k	
	<i>pl.</i> kanu, salkanu	salkanu, sa sal-	salkanu, sa salkanu
		kanu, nu, niu,	
		lekanu	
Sulu	sg. ekau, kau, nio	mu, kannio, kanio	
	pl. kamu	kaimu	1 2121
Bag.	sg. kona, ka, si kona	niko, no	kaniko, niko
	pl. kio, ko, si kio	nio	kanio

 $^{^{1}}$ Used only in the phrase a-niyo 'inquis.'

² In place of the genitive and oblique forms, which are given elsewhere in the text. the forms of the pronoun of the first person singular are repeated in Bergaño's paradigm.

³ Cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt. 2.

The root particles upon which the pronouns of the second person, singular and plural, are based, are ka, mo, yo, and nu.

Ka occurs uncombined as nominative singular in all the languages except Bikol and Sulu, and also as genitive in Magindanao. It is found also in the nominatives, Sulu and Harayan, kau, kao, and with articular prefixes, Bikol and Pampangan i-ka, Pangasinan and Ilokan si-ka, Tagalog and Bisayan i-kao, Sulu e-kau, Ibanag si-kau, Nabaloi si-ka-m; in the oblique forms Pampangan ke-ka, Pangasinan ed si-ka, Ilokan ken-ka, Ibanag nikau; in all the forms with case signs in Magindanao. The forms in o, u, probably owe this final element to the analogy of other pronominal forms ending in o, u, like tayo, kdyo. The final m of the Nabaloi form is probably an added genitive element of the same person, like the ta in Harayan ako-ta (cf. above, p. 367). In the Bagobo genitive and oblique forms ni-ko, ka-ni-ko; ko probably represents a modification of ka due to the analogy of the genitive no. The particle ko which is found in Pampangan and Bagobo in the plural forms ko, i-ko, ke-ko, is probably a blend of the singular ka with the final o of the plural form kayo, which o was felt as a sign of the plural. Similarly Pangasinan ki in the plural forms ki, si-ki, ed si-ki, is probably a blend of ka with the final i of plural forms of the first person. viz., kami, sikiti, etc.

Ka occurs also in the plural stems ka-yo, ka-mo, ka-nu, which are made up of two root particles of the second person. is found uncombined as nominative plural in Tagalog, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi, and with articular prefixes in the nominatives, Pampangan i-kayo, Pangasinan and Nabaloi si-kayo, Ilokan da-kayo, and the oblique forms derived from them. Bagobo kio in kio, si-kio, is, perhaps, a modification of kayo, due to the analogy of the genitive nio. Kamo occurs uncombined in Bisayan, Bikol, Ibanag, Sulu, and in certain dialects of Tagalog, and with articular prefixes in Ibanag si-kamu, Kanu is found only in Magindanao both uncombined and with articular prefixes. Bagobo kona in kona, si-kona, may represent a metathesis of *ka-no. The ka of Pampangan katamo 'we,' and of the Pangasinan and Nabaloi case sign si-ka, is an analogical element based on forms like ka-yo, ka-mo 'you," where ka is root particle.

Mo occurs uncombined as genitive in all the languages except Magindanao and Bagobo. The genitive -m of Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi and Ibanag is a shortened form of mo: it is found also in Nabaloi nominative si-ka-m (cf. above). Pampangan moo, me, mee, are secondary modifications of mo (cf. below, p. 387). Mo also occurs with case indicating prefixes in the Bisayan genitives i-mo, ni-mo and the oblique forms derived from them, in Bikol ni-mo, si-mo, sai-mo, Batan i-mu, ni-mo, di-mo, and Sulu kai-mu; it is used, moreover, in the formation of the plural stems, second person ka-mo (cf. above), first person ta-mo (cf. above, p. 370).

Yo occurs uncombined as genitive plural in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Nabaloi (dyo < *yo, cf. above, p. 335). Pampangan yoo, ye, yee are secondary modifications of yo (cf. below, p. 387). With case indicating prefixes, yo is found in the genitives, Tagalog singular, Samaro-Leytean plural i-yo, ni-yo, Tagalog, Cebuan, and Hiliguayna plural <math>in-yo, nin-yo, and the oblique forms derived from them; and in the Batan plural forms <math>nin-io, din-io (io = yo); it is also used as an element of the plural stems, second person ka-yo (cf. above), first person ta-yo (cf. above, p. 370).

Batan, Magindanao and Bagobo genitive, Sulu, nominative niu, nio, which is found also in Sulu ka-nio kan-nio, Batan ka-nio, is probably to be analysed as case sign ni + yo, the form representing either a different spelling of niyo, or a phonetic variant, with y changed to the hiatus or glottal catch (cf. forms with ia for iya, below, p. 381). Bikol nindo, saindo, are probably modifications of forms identical with Tagalog ninyo, sainyo, the d being due to the analogy of the corresponding forms of the third person plural, viz., ninda, sainda.

The particle no occurs uncombined as genitive plural in Ibanag and Magindanao, and as genitive singular in Bagobo. It is also used in Magindanao in the plural stem of the second person ka-nu (cf. above) and as a final element of all forms of the first person inclusive plural. It is not impossible that this no is a modification of mo or yo, the n being due to the influence of other pronominal genitive forms with initial n.

The case indicating prefixes which are found in the pronouns of the second person are, in Tagalog, i, n(i), in, sa, in Cebuan i, n(i), in, sa, ka(n), in Hiliguayna i, n(i), in, sa, ka(n), d(i), ka,

in Samaro-Leytean i, si, n(i) sa, d(i), in Harayan i, n(i), ka(n), in Bikol i, n(i), sa, s, in, in Pampangan i, ka, in Pangasinan si, ed, in Ilokan si, da, ken, ka, in Nabaloi si, in Ibanag si, ni, in Batan i, n(i), d(i), in, in Magindanao se, sal, sale, le, neng, sa, in Sulu e, ka, kan, i, in Bagobo si, ni, ka.

The prefixes i (of nom.), si, se, da, ni, sa, s, (of gen.-obl.), sal, le, ka, ka(n), kan, ke, ed, have already been explained (cf. above, pp. 353 f., 371). The prefix i in the Tagalog and Bisayan genitive forms i-yo, i-mo is probably the same as the prepositional i in Ilokan oblique of the definite article i-ti. Whether the i in Batan nominative i-mu is this prepositional ior the articular i of the nominative is difficult to say. of Sulu ekau, though long, seems to be identical with articular i (cf. pēla 'how much?'=Bis. pila). In the Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, and Batan case signs n(i) and d(i) it is uncertain whether the i is this prepositional i, or the final i of the case signs niand di, i. e. whether the forms niyo, nimo, diyo, dimo, in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol and Batan, are to be analysed as i-yo, i-mo with prefixed case signs n and d, or as ni-yo, di-mo, etc. The case signs n and d would of course be derived from ni and di (cf. above, p. 354). Ilokan ken is probably contracted from *ka-i-n with the two ligatures i and n. In Magindanao, sale is a fuller form of sal; neng contains the ligature ng; the e is an indistinct vowel, as is shown by the spelling ngka, and not the result of the contraction of a diphthong; ne may, therefore, represent a reduced form of nu, the genitive of the definite arti-The Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Bikol, and Batan prefix in, which occurs both as initial and with additional prefixed case signs, is not clear. It may be the prepositional i of iyo followed by the ligature n, the prefix being thus similar to the prefixes an, in, un, of the Cebuan and Pampangan interrogatives. In the forms with compound prefix like nin-yo, din-yo, the i is of the same ambiguous character as in forms like ni-yo, di-yo (cf. above).

In general the case signs are used in the formation of cases as in the first person.

In the nominative Tagalog, Bisayan and Bikol have i in the singular forms, i-kao, i-ka: Samaro-Leytean has si in the forms

¹ Cf. Porter, Primer of the Moro Dialect, Washington, 1903, passim.

si ikao, si kamo: Pampangan has i in both singular and plural in the forms i-ka, i-kayo, i-ko: Pangasinan, Nabaloi and Ibanag have si in both singular and plural in the forms si-ka, si-kayo, si-ki; si-kam, si-kayo; si-kau, si-kamu: Ilokan has si in singular si-ka; da in plural da-kayo: Batan has i, whether articular or prepositional i is doubtful, in singular i-mu: Magindanao has se and sale in the singular se-ka, sale-ka; sal in the plural sal-kanu: Sulu has e=i, in e-kaw: Bagobo has si in the forms si kona, si kio. Nominative forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or plural stem, or some modification of these, are found in all the languages.

In the genitive in a number of languages secondary stems are made by prefixing prepositional i and the particle in to the root particles, viz., Tag. i-yo, in-yo, Bis. i-yo, i-mo, in-yo, Bik. i-mo, in-do (cf. above, p. 376), Batan i-mo, in-io, Sulu i-mu. In Tagalog and Bisayan these stems occur both uncombined and with the prefixed case signs n, e. g., Tag. inyo, n-inyo. In the other languages they are found only with case signs, Bikol n(i), n, sa, s in nimo, n-indo, sa-imo, s-imo; Batan n(i), n in nimo, n-inio, Sulu ka in ka-imu. In Magindanao the case signs are prefixed to the nominatives ka and kanu; neng, le, sale, sa sal to ka; le, sal, sa sal to kanu. In Sulu the case signs ka and kan are prefixed in the singular to the form nio, which though used as a nominative is formally a genitive; in the plural, ka is prefixed to the secondary stem imu. In Bagobo, ni is prefixed to the root particle in nio=ni-yo, and ni-ko, in which ko is a modified form of ka (cf. above, p. 375). Genitive forms without case signs, consisting of a root particle either unchanged or in some modified form, are found in all the languages, Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, and Ibanag having only forms of this kind.

In the oblique Tagalog prefixes the case sign sa to the genitives with initial i; each of the Bisayan dialects has the same series of forms based on the genitives as in the first person, the analysis of the forms with initial kan, di, and kari being ambiguous. In Bikol in the singular, as in the first person, the oblique forms are identical with the genitives with initial s, in the plural the case sign sa is prefixed to the secondary stem indo. In Batan in the plural the case sign d is prefixed to the secondary stem inio; the singular dimo has the case sign d(i).

In Bagobo the case sign ka is prefixed to the genitive in ka-niko, ka-nio; the genitive niko is also used as oblique. In Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Magindanao the case signs are prefixed to the nominative. In Pampangan, keka, kekayo and keko are derived from the nominatives ika, ikayo and iko by prefixing ka; kai becoming ke. Pangasinan forms its oblique by prefixing ed to the nominatives with case sign si, Ibanag changes this si to ni. Ilokan forms its singular by prefixing ken to the nominative ka, its plural by prefixing ka to the nominative with case sign da. In Magindanao, sal and sa sal are prefixed to ka and kanu.

Third Person.

The forms of the personal pronouns of the third person are, viz.:

	nom.	gen.	obl.
Tag.	sg. siya	niya	kaniya
	pl. sila	nila	kanila
Bis. (Ceb.)	sg. siya²	niya,² iya,² na	kaniya,² saiya,
	pl. sila.	nila, ila	kanila, saila
Bis. (Hil.)	sg. siya²	niya,² iya	kaniya, sa iya, dia, karia, sang iya
1	$pl. \left\{ egin{array}{l} ext{sila} \ ext{sanda} \end{array} ight.$	nila, ila	kanila, sa ila, dila, sang ila
	(sanda	nanda, anda	kananda, sa anda
Bis. (SamLey.)	sg. siya	niya, iya	kaniya, diya, sa iya
	pl. sira	nira, ira	dira, sa ira
Bis. (Har.)	sg. tana	ana, na	kana, kanana, kaniya
	pl. sanda	anda, nanda	kananda
Bik.	sg. siya	niya	saiya
	pl. sinda	ninda	sainda
Pamp.	sg. iya, ya, na, ne	na, ne, nee, no,	keya
	pl. ila, la, no	da, de, dee, doo	karela
Pang.	sg. sikato	to	ed sikato
	pl. sikara, ra, ira	da, ra	ed sikara

¹ The forms of the plural may also be reduplicated, e. g., silasila, kanikanila.

² These forms are also written with *ia* instead of *iya*.

Ilok.	<i>sģ</i> . isu	na	kenkuana, kaniana
	pl. isuda, da, ida	da	kadakuada, kaniada
Igor. (Nab.)	sg. sikato, to	to	
- , ,	pl. sikara, si era,	cha, ra	
	era		
Iban.	sg. ya	na	sa
	pl. ira	da	nira
Bat.	sg. ya, sia	na, nia	dia, i siai
	pl. sira, sa	nira, dara²	dira, sira,3 da,3 ra3
Mag.	sg. salkanin,	salkanin,	salkanin,
	sekanin, nin	$\frac{\mathbf{sa}}{\mathbf{na}} \left\{ \mathbf{salkanin}, \right.$	$\frac{\mathbf{kana}}{\mathbf{sa}} \left\{ \mathbf{salkanin} \right\}$
		lekanin, nin	
	pl. silan, salkilan	kanilan, sa kani- lan, nilan	kanilan, sa kanilan
Sulu	sg. sia, nia	nia, kansia, kannia	
	pl. sila, nila	kansila, kanila	
Bag.	sg. kandin, si kandin	din	kandin
	pl. kandan, si kandan	dan	kandan

The pronouns of the third person singular all appear to be based on one of the particles ya, na, to, su, and nin. Ya and na are probably identical respectively with the ligatures and articular and demonstrative particles ya, na; to is probably identical with the demonstrative particle to; su with the Batan and Pangasinan article su, so; nin is perhaps the demonstrative root particle ni + the ligature n.

Ya occurs uncombined in the nominative in Pampangan, Ibanag, and Batan; with case indicating prefix in the nominative in Tagalog, Bisayan (except Harayan), and Bikol si-ya, Batan and Sulu nominative sia (for si-ya), Pampangan i-ya,

¹ These case forms are headed 'Dat. ac. abl;' sia doubtless belongs to ac. =accusative; cf. above, p. 341, ft. nt. 2.

² Probably a mistake for da, ra, cf. oblique, and Pangasinan and Nabaloi genitive. The use of a reduplicated form in the plural, however, is $a\ priori$ quite natural, and is found in Tagalog (cf. above. p. 379, ft. nt. 1), hence it is possible that the form is correct.

³ These forms are given under the head of 'Acus.'=accusative.

Sulu *nia* (borrowed from the genitive), in the genitive in Tagalog, Bisayan (except Harayan), and Bikol *ni-ya*, Batan and Sulu *nia* (for *ni-ya*), Bisayan (except Harayan) *i-ya*; and in all the oblique forms in Tagalog, Bisayan (in Harayan only in *kani-ya*), Bikol, Pampangan, and Batan. In the forms written with *ia* for *iya* we have either a variant spelling, or the intervocalic y has been changed to the hiatus or glottal catch (cf. *nio* for *niyo* above, p. 376).

Na occurs uncombined as genitive in Cebuan, Harayan, Pampangan, Ilokan, Ibanag, and Batan, and as nominative in Pampangan. In Harayan it is the root particle of the pronoun in all its forms with the exception of the oblique kani-ya. The ta of the nominative tana is perhaps to be connected with the demonstrative root particle ta. The initial a of the genitive ana is probably due to the analogy of the plural form anda (cf. below). Na also forms the basis of the Ilokan oblique forms kenkua-na, kania-na. The Pampangan forms ne, nee, no, noo, are probably secondary modifications of na (cf. below, p. 387). It is not likely that no has any connection with the particle nu, no of the second person.

To is found only in Pangasinan and Nabaloi, both uncombined, and with prefixed case signs in Pangasinan and Nabaloi sika-to, Pangasinan ed sika-to.

Su occurs only in Ilokan singular i-su with articular i, and in isu, a prefix of the nominative plural (cf. below).

Nin forms the basis of all the forms of the pronoun in Magindanao. With this nin the particle din which forms the basis of the pronoun in Bagobo is perhaps to be connected, the initial d being due to the influence of the plural dan.

What Ibanag sa represents is doubtful. An original s seems to be preserved in Ibanag only before i, otherwise becoming t (cf. above, p. 333); hence sa can hardly be connected with the articular sa of the other languages. It may be contracted from *sia < *siya just as perhaps sakan 'I' from *si-akan, though it is difficult to see why such a form should be used as oblique.

The pronouns of the third person plural, with the exception of Batan sa, which is perhaps identical with the inclusive article of Bisayan and Bikol, are all based on one of the particles da, ra, la, which are perhaps ultimately identical.

Da occurs uncombined as genitive in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi (cha < *da) and Ibanag; as nominative in Ilokan; and as oblique in Batan. Pampangan de, dee, doo are secondary modifications of da (cf. below, p. 387). Bagobo dan in dan, kan-dan, si kan-dan, is probably da+the ligature n. Da is found also with case indicating prefixes in Hiliguayna and Harayan stem an-da, the Bikol stem in-da, and in the Ilokan forms isu-da, i-da, kania-da, kadakua-da, and in the compound case sign ka-dakua of the last (cf. below, p. 384). It also forms the first element of Batan genitive da-ra (cf. above, p. 380, ft. nt. 2). The an and in of the stems an-da, in-da are probably to be explained as articular a, i+ ligature n, like the prefixes an, in, un, of the interrogative pronouns (cf. above, p. 361).

The particle ra occurs preceded by case signs ending in a vowel in Samaro-Leytean, Pangasinan, Nabaloi, Ibanag and Batan: la is found in Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Pampangan, Magindanao, and Sulu under similar conditions; the final n of the Magindanao forms is probably due to the analogy of the singular. Ra occurs uncombined in Pangasinan genitive and nominative, Nabaloi genitive, and Batan oblique, and in Batan da-ra (cf. above). La occurs uncombined as nominative in Pampangan.

It is difficult to determine with certainty the exact relation of the three particles da, ra, la. Ra seems almost certainly to be simply a phonetic modification of da, in all the languages in which it occurs. This is indicated by the following facts. all these languages da and ra occur alongside of one another (in Samaro-Levtean cf. the forms of the inclusive article), and as the change of intervocalic d to r is a common phenomenon of these languages (cf. above, p. 334), and as they seem to present no change from r to d, the supposition lies near at hand that the two are simply different forms of the same particle, da being the more original form. This supposition is strengthened by the evidence of Ilokan, which does not change intervocalic d to r, where the form corresponding to Pangasinan and Ibanag ira, Nabaloi era, is ida. According to this explanation the r of the uncombined form ra of Pangasinan, Nabaloi, and Batan would be due to the analogy of forms like ira, where the r is organic.

The particle la is perhaps a further phonetic modification of this ra resulting from original da after a vowel. It is true that

r resulting from intervocalic d is regularly retained in these languages, but as words of very frequent use often suffer special phonetic changes, it may be that in these pronouns the secondary r became l just as original r became l in these languages (cf. above, p. 333). In this case the uncombined la of Pampangan would be analogical like the uncombined ra.

It is also possible, however, to suppose that la is a particle distinct from da. If so it can hardly represent an original la, as in that case the intervocalic l would have been lost in Tagalog and Sulu, but as in the languages where la is found l often represents an r of the other languages (cf. above, p. 333), the original form of the particle was perhaps ra. If this supposition is correct, the ra in some of the forms may be referred to the same original particle, as original r is usually retained in these languages, but in just which forms, it would be difficult to say.

The case indicating prefixes that are found in the pronouns of the third person are in Tagalog si, n(i), ka(n), Cebuan si, n(i), i, ka(n), sa, in Hiliguayna si, s, n(i), n, i, ka(n), d(i), ka, sa, sang, in Samaro-Leytean si, n(i), i, ka(n), d(i), sa, in Harayan s, n, ka, ka(n), kan, in Bikol si, s, n(i), n, sa, in Pampangan i, ka, kare, in Pangasinan sika, i, ed, in Ilokan i, isu, kenkua, kadakua, kania, in Nabaloi sika, e, si, in Ibanag i, n(i), (for the case sign of sa, cf. above, p. 381), in Batan si, n(i), d(i), in Magindanao salka, seka, leka, sa, na, kana, si, salki, n(i), ka(n), in Sulu si, n(i), ka, ka(n), kan, in Bagobo kan, si.

The signs i (of nom.), si, s (of nom.), sika, i (prepositional), in, na, n(i), n, sa, d(i), ka, ka(n), kan, ed have already been explained (cf. above, pp. 353 f., 371, 377).

The ambiguous signs are found in the following forms: n(i) in niya, nia, nilan, nira, in Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Ibanag, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu; ka(n) in kaniya, kanilan in Tagalog, Bisayan, and Magindanao, in kananda in Hiliguayna and Harayan; d(i) in dia, dila, dira in Hiliguayna, Samaro-Levtean, and Batan. I in Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, and Ibanag is articular (cf. above, p. 353); in Bisayan, prepositional (cf. above, p. 344); Nabaloi e is probably a modification of articular i due to the following r; Hiliguayna sang is the genitive of the definite article; Pampangan kare is probably borrowed from the oblique plural of the demonstratives kareni, kareti, etc.; Ilokan

isu is the pronoun of the third person singular used as case sign; kenkua and kadakua contain the noun kua (cf. above, p. 347) and the case signs ken (cf. above, p. 377), and kada, which is derived by a wrong division from the oblique plural forms of the first and second persons, e. g., ka-datayo, where the da belongs to the stem and not to the oblique case sign; kania in the forms kaniana and kaniada is a combination of the particles ka and ni with an a which is probably due to a wrong division of the case signs containing kua, viz., kadaku-ana, kadakuada. In Magindanao, kana is the genitive and oblique of the definite article; the ka of seka, leka and salka is probably due to a wrong division of forms like sal-kanu 'you' where the ka belongs to the pronominal stem and not to the case sign; salki may be borrowed in the same way from forms like sal-kita, 'we two,' or it may be the case sign salka with the a changed to i before la after the analogy of the other forms of the plural; for the elements se, le, sal, cf. above, pp. 371, 372.

In general the case signs are used in the formation of cases as in the pronouns of the first and second persons.

In the nominative, Tagalog, Cebuan, Hiliguayna, Samaro-Leytean, Batan, and Sulu, prefix si to the root particles ya and la, ra in both singular and plural, in si-ya (sia), si-la, si-ra. In Hiliguayna and Harayan plural the case sign s is prefixed to the stem anda. In Bikol, si is prefixed to the root particle ya in the singular, s, to the stem inda in the plural. In Pampangan, i is prefixed to the root particle in singular i-ya, plural i-la. In Pangasinan and Nabaloi in the singular, sika is prefixed to the root particle in sika-to; in the plural both prefix sika and i. e to the root particle da or ra, and Nabaloi makes an additional form by prefixing si to the form with case sign e. Ilokan prefixes i to the root particle in singular i-su, plural i-da, and also makes a plural form by prefixing isu to the root particle. Ibanag has i in the plural i-ra. In Magindanao in the singular the signs seka, salka are prefixed to the root particle nin; in the plural si and salki are prefixed to lan, the root particle la with an analogical n derived from the singular. In Sulu the case signs si and ni are prefixed to the root particles in singular and plural, sia and nia being equivalent to si-ya, ni-ya: the forms with ni are borrowed from the genitive (cf. below, p. 388). In Bagobo the nominative of both numbers seems to

be identical with the oblique; the nominative, however, may take the additional case sign si.

Nominative forms without case sign are found in Harayan (tana cf. above, p. 381), Pampangan, Pangasinan, Ilokan, Nabaloi, Ibanag, Batan and Magindanao, consisting, with the exception of Batan sa (cf. above, p. 381) of a root particle, two root particles (tana), or a modified form of a root particle.

In the genitive, Bisayan (except Harayan), as in the pronouns of the second person, makes genitives by prefixing prepositional i to the root particles, viz., i-ya, i-la. It is not impossible that the genitive forms niya(nia), nila of Tagalog, Bisayan, Bikol, Batan, Magindanao, and Sulu are based on this stem, the case sign being n, but it seems more likely that they consist of the case sign ni + the root particle. Hiliguayna, Harayan, and Bikol prefix in the plural the case sign n to the stems anda, inda. In Magindanao in the singular, the case signs leka, salka, na salka, sa salka, are prefixed to the root particle nin; in the plural the forms are based on lan (cf. above), the case signs being n(i), ka(n), and sa ka(n). Sulu kanila has the case sign ka(n); in kan-nia, kan is prefixed to the genitive; in kan-sia, kan-sila, to the nominative. Genitive forms without case sign, consisting of a root particle or stem, or some modification of a root particle, are found in all the languages except Tagalog, Samaro-Leytean, Bikol and Sulu.

In the oblique, the Tagalog forms may be based either on the genitive or the secondary stem with initial i, the case sign being ka(n). Each of the Bisayan dialects has in general the same series of forms as in the pronouns of the first and second persons: the forms with case sign sa are based on the secondary stem with initial i; the forms kaniya, kanila, kananda have the case sign ka(n) as in Tagalog; the forms with initial d and kar have the case sign d(i); in Harayan, oblique forms are made from the genitives na, ana by prefixing ka and kan respectively. Hiliguayna there is an additional series of forms made by prefixing sang, the genitive of the definite article, to the stem with initial i; in Samaro-Leytean, in addition to the regular series, there is the form kaniya with case sign ka(n). The Bikol forms are made by prefixing sa to the stems with prefixed i and in. Pampangan makes its singular by prefixing ka to the nominative with articular i; in the plural we

should expect *kela, but the form has become karela under the influence of the demonstratives. In Pangasinan, ed is prefixed to the nominative with case sign si. In Ilokan the case signs are prefixed to the root particles, kenkua and kadakua in the singular and plural respectively, kania, to both numbers. In Ibanag the plural nira contains the sign n(i); for the singular sa cf. above, p. 381. Batan has the forms dia, dira with sign d(i), also sia and sira identical with the nominative. Magindanao all the forms are identical with genitive forms, except kana salkanin, in which kana salka is prefixed to the root particle. In Bagobo kan is prefixed to the genitive. only oblique forms without case sign are Batan da and ra, which are given as accusative forms (cf. above, p. 380, ft. nt. 3). These forms may be really genitives, their presence under the head of accusative being due to a mistake of the grammarian or copyist (cf. above, p. 366, ft. nt. 2).

General Remarks on Case Formation.

Generally speaking, the inflection of pronouns in the Philippine languages is initial, and is based on the forms of the articles. The nominative is often without case sign, especially in the personal pronouns, but is also frequently indicated by initial i, si, which are identical respectively with the i of the nominatives, Ibanag i, Pampangan i-ng, etc., of the definite article, and si of the personal article; it is also sometimes indicated by s derived from si.

The genitive is most frequently characterized by an initial n. As the ligatures na, n, are still often used between two nouns that stand to one another in the relation of genitive and modified noun, e. g. Tag. $bahay\ na\ bato$, 'house of stone,' $baro-n\ kastila$, 'a shirt of Spain, Spanish shirt,' it is very likely that the genitive sign n is derived from them.

In the personal pronouns there are a number of genitive forms without case sign. These forms, which are usually root particles, are placed after the modified word, the genitive being originally indicated simply by the postposition. Doubtless in some primitive stage of the Philippine languages, any root particle might be thus used as a genitive, but in the course of time, however, certain root particles were adapted to this use (so with ko and mo of the first and second persons respectively), others being excluded.

In Pampangan the number of genitive forms of this kind has been greatly increased by modifying the final vowel of the root particle. There are five series of these forms, the endings being a, o, e, oo, ee. Of the forms in a, all are unmodified root particles except da (1. sg.) [cf. above, p. 368]. Of the forms in o; ko, mo and yo are root particles; no (3. sg.) is modified from na on the analogy of these forms. The forms in e, viz., ke, me, ye, ne, de, are all secondary; the e may have arisen from the combination of a root particle ending in a, e. g. na (3. sg.) with ligature i, and then have been extended to the other forms. The forms in oo and ee are derived from the o and e series respectively by repeating the final vowel. The repetition seems to be emphatic, these forms being used when the subject of the verb of which they are the agent, is omitted.

This expression of the genitive by simple postposition has been extended in Ilokan to the other pronouns, e. g. ti balay ti tao, 'the house of the man,' iti atep toy a balay, 'the thatch of this house,' so that the genitives of the various pronouns are always identical with some form of the nominative.

The oblique case is never without a case indicating prefix, except in the doubtful Batan forms da, ra (cf. above, p. 386). It is usually characterized by an initial d, s, or k, derived respectively from the oblique case forms of the articles di, sa, and ka. These oblique case forms are prepositional in character, but have this peculiarity, viz., that they denote not only the case, but also the idea of the definite, personal or inclusive article before a following noun, For example, 'in the house' is in Tagalog not literally sa and sa bahay, but simply sa bahay, the oblique sa expressing both the idea of 'in,' and that of the definite article.

It is quite common for forms which have oblique case signs to be used as genitives, as, for example, in the Sulu personal pronouns, and instances also occurs in which forms with genitive case sign are used as oblique, for example, in the Cebuan demonstratives and Ibanag personal pronouns.

The identity of nominative and genitive forms in Ilokan has already been mentioned. Other instances of this identity are found, especially in Pampangan and certain languages of the Northern Group, and there especially in the inclusive article,

and the plural of other pronouns. In the Sulu personal pronouns the use of genitive forms in the nominative is probably due to the fact that both nominative and genitive forms are found after the case sign kan, e. g. kan-sia, kan-nia, thus giving rise to the idea that the forms like sia and genitive forms like nia are equivalent.

Oblique case forms are found in the nominative in the Magindanao personal pronouns, the Cebuan demonstratives and interrogatives with initial k, the Harayan demonstratives with initial d, and the Bagobo pronouns of the third person. Magindanao personal pronouns the case forms are very much confused, some forms being used for all three cases. demonstratives, the use of the oblique forms in the nominative is probably due to the fact that certain adverbs of place, identical with the oblique forms of the demonstratives, were used as simple demonstratives, 'the there man,' or 'the man there,' being used as the equivalent of 'this man,' (cf. the use of the Cebuan adverb karon, above p. 351, ft. nt. 1.) The oblique case signs thus introduced into the nominative became the regular nominative case signs of the demonstratives, and in Cebuan, were also extended to the interrogatives. The nominative forms of the Bagobo pronouns of the third person are possibly to be explained in the same way, inasmuch as pronouns of the third person and demonstratives are very closely related.

The nominative forms given under the oblique in Batan are probably used only in the accusative (cf. above, pp. 341, ft. nt. 2, 380, ft. nt. 3). The difficult Ibanag oblique sa (3. sg.) seems to have a nominative case sign (cf. above, p. 381).

List of principal Elements used in the Formation of the Pronouns.1

a—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) elem. of ligs. ay, ya, cf. p. 340. 3) final elem. in dems., cf. p. 357. 4) root part. of def. arts. ang, an, cf. p. 341. 5) prefix in dems., cf. p. 354, and dem. stems like ari, cf. p. 354 f. 6) elem. of an, and perhaps of ad, ag. 7) perhaps dem. root part., cf. p. 352, and root part of e.

ad—elem. of dem. stem adto, cf. p. 354 f. ag—elem. of dem. stem agto, cf. p. 354 f.

¹ For elements of inc. art. not included here, cf. p. 348.

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ak,-root part., 1. sg., cf. p. 367.
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ak₂—sign of indef. object in Ceb., cf. p. 345.

al-cf. ar.

am-elem. of prons. 1. exc. pl., cf. p. 369.

an,—prefixed elem. in Ceb. inter. k-an-sa, cf. p. 361, and in the stem anda, 3. pl., cf. p. 382.

an₂—prefixed elem. in nom. pl. of Iban. dems., cf. p. 356 f.

an_s—inter. root part., cf. p. 362.

an,-probably suffix in Ceb. inters. ending in lan, cf. p. 363.

an₅—suffix of prons. 1. pers., cf. p. 368.

ar—elem. of inters. Tag. al-in, Bik. ar-in, and perhaps of Ceb. forms ending in lan, cf. p. 363.

asi-stem of indiv. inter. in Iban., cf. p. 363.

at—elem. of prons. 1. inc. pl., cf. p. 371.

au-dem. root part., cf. p. 353.

ay, ai—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) final elem. of dems., cf. p. 357. bbad—final elem. of Bag. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

chi—Nab. form of di.

d₁—obl. case sign in Tag. dems., cf. p. 354; in prons. 1. pers., cf. p. 371; and in Bat. du, cf. p. 344: [cf. also d(i)].

d₂—nom. case sign in dems., cf. p. 354.

da, ra, la—1) root part., 3. pl., cf. p. 381. 2) elem. of pl. def. art. in Pang., cf. p. 342. 3) root part. of inc. art. in Ilok. and Iban., elem. of inc. art. in Pang., cf. p. 348. 4) plural elem. of dems. in Pamp., Pang., and Iban., cf. p. 354. 5) elem. of prefixes dag and day. 6) prefix of gen. pl. of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356. 7) prefix in Ilok. prons., 1. pl., du., 2. pl., cf. pp. 372, 378. 8) elem. of pers. inter. in Pang., Iban., and Bag., cf. pp. 360, 361, 362, and of indiv. inter. in Iban., cf. p. 363. 9) perhaps elem. of dday.—Pampangan da gen. of pron. 1. sg. is not identical with this da, but a modification of ta₄.

dday-final elem. of Iban. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.

dag—prefix of pl. in Ilok. def. art. and dems., cf. pp. 342, 354. day—prefix of dems. sg. in Ilok., cf. p. 356.

de₁—gen. of pron. 1. exc. pl. in Bag., cf. p. 369.—Pamp. de gen. of pron. 3. pl. is not identical with this de, though both are probably modifications of da.

de₂—prefix of Pamp. inter. pl. de-no, cf. p. 360.

di.—1) obl. of def. art. [Nab. chi], cf. p. 343, and of pers. art., cf. p. 347. 2) obl. case sign in Tag. dems., cf. p. 353.

- 3) elem. of indiv. inter. in Pang., Ilok., Nab., and Sulu, cf. p. 364. 4) obl. case sign in Batan prons. 1. pers., cf. p. 371.—[cf. also d(i)].
- di₂—dem. root part., cf. p. 352.
- di,-1) root part. of pl. of def. art. in Pamp., cf. p. 342.
 - 2) root part. of inc. art. in Pamp., and elem. of inc. art. in Pang., cf. p. 348. 3) prefix of pers. inter. pl. in Pamp., cf. p. 360.—perhaps a modification of da.
- di,—nom. case sign in Ceb. and Har. dems., cf. p. 354 (=di₁).
- d(i)—obl. case sign, may be d_i or di_i , in prons. 2. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 383.
- din—in Bag., root part., 3. sg., and final elem. of neut. inter., cf. pp. 381, 362.
- ding—in Pamp., stem of pl. of def. art., and elem. of pl. of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 342, 361.
- e—nom. of def. art. in Nab., cf. p. 341.—e in Sulu ekau is identical with i, cf. p. 377.
- ed—in Pang. only: 1) obl. of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 346 f. 2) obl. case sign of all other pronouns, cf. pp. 347, 356, 362, 373, 379, 386.
- en,—1) dem. root part., cf. p. 353. 2) probably elem. of Sulu inter. hadi-en, cf. p. 364.
- en,-cf. uen.
- et—obl. and gen. of def. art. in Har., cf. pp. 342, 343.
- g-pluralizing infix in Ilok. dems, cf. pp. 354, 356.
- go-final elem. of Bag. dems., cf. p. 352.
- ha—1) obl. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343. 2) initial elem. of indiv. inters. in Bis. and Sulu, cf. p. 364.
- hi—in Sulu only, pers. art. and prefix of pers. inter., cf. pp. 346, 364.
- i.—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) elem. of ligs. ay, ya, cf. p. 340. 3) final elem. in Pang. def. art., cf. p. 342, and perhaps in the forms e, ne of the def. and pers. art. in Nab. (cf. pp. 341, 343); in the forms of the numeral 'one' in Iban.; cf. p. 345; in kay, obl. of pers. art. in Tag. and Bis., in the inc. art. in Hil., cf. p. 348; in the dems., cf. p. 357; in the following inters., viz., Bik. and Samaro-Leytean pers. inter., cf. pp. 361, 364, Nab. sepa-i, twa-i, $n\~garamto$ -i; followed by n in the case sign ken, and perhaps in Pang. nen (cf. p. 346). 4) root part. in def. arts. i, in, ing, cf.

p. 341; and pers. art. i and perhaps hi, cf. p. 346. 5) articular prefix or nom. case sign in Ilok. def. art., cf. p. 342; in the forms of the numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345; in the dems., cf. p. 353; in the Bik. inter. stem isay, cf. p. 361, in Iban. indiv. inter., cf. p. 363, and in Nab. inter. sepa(y) if it is equivalent to *sa-i-pa(y), cf. p. 362; in the pers. prons. of all persons, cf. pp. 371, 372, 376, 377 f., 383, 384.—The root part. ya, ia, 3. sg. is perhaps a combination of a with this prefix. 6) elem. of in.

i₂—prepositional prefix or obl. and gen. case sign in Ilok. def. art. and dems., cf. pp. 344, 353 f., 356; and in prons. 2. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 378, 383, 385: elem. of in₂.

ia—cf. ya.

id-elem. of dem. stem idto, cf. p. 354 f.

in prefix in inters., Ceb. k-in-sa, Pamp. insa (in < ing), cf. p. 361, and in the stem inda, 3. pl., cf. p. 382.

in₂—prefix in stems inyo, indo, 2. pl., cf. pp. 376, 377.

in₃—suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1. pers. (=on, un, and en_3), cf. p. 372.

in₄—suffix of inters., cf. p. 363.—not identical with in₃.

k,—nom. case sign in Ceb. dems. and pers. inter., cf. pp. 354, 361.

k₂—obl. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in Pamp. king, cf.
p. 343 f.; in Bik. ki, cf. p. 346; in Har. k-agto, cf. p. 355;
and in Pamp. k-ako, cf. p. 373.

ka,-root part., 2. sg., cf. p. 375.

ka₂—1) obl. and gen. of def. art. in Bag. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in def. art., cf. pp. 342-344; in pers. art., cf. p. 346; in the inc. art., cf. p. 347 f.; in dems., cf. p. 353; in the inters. in Tag., Hil., and Pamp., cf. p. 360, and probably in Sam.-Ley. kanay, cf. p. 364; in the prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 376 f., 383. 3) elem. of ka(n), kan, kay, ken, kana, kani, kare and takka.—The ka of the inc. art. in Ceb. does not belong here, cf. k₂ and ka₄.

ka,—elem. of the Mag. case signs salka, seka, leka, cf. p. 384, and of sika.

ka,—in Ceb., obl. of inc. art., and in Bik., obl. case sign of pl. of pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361.

kan-1) obl. and gen. of the def. art., cf. p. 343 (bis); of pers. art., cf. p. 346. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in pers. prons. in

- Har., Pamp., Sulu, and Bagobo, cf. pp. 371, 377, 383. 3) in Nab. obl. sikan, cf. p. 346.
- ka(n)—obl. and gen. case sign, may be ka or kan, in the pers. prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 376 f., 383.
- kana—in Mag., gen. and obl. of def. art., and gen. case sign in prons. 3. sg., cf. pp. 343, 344, 383.
- kani—1) gen. and obl. of pers. art. in Mag., cf. p. 346. 2) obl. case sign in Ilok. kaniak, cf. p. 373. 3) elem. of case sign kania in Ilok. prons. 3. pers., cf. p. 384.
- kare-obl. case sign in Pamp. kareno, karela, cf. pp. 360, 386.
- kay—1) obl. of pers. art. cf. p. 346. 2) obl. and gen. case sign in Hil. pers. inter., cf. p. 360.
- ke,—obl. case sign in Pamp. inter. keno, cf. p. 360.
- ke₂—nom. pron. 1. exc. pl. in Pamp., and Bag., cf. p. 369.
 —Pamp. ke, 1. sg. does not belong here, being a modification of ko, cf. p. 387.
- ken—in Ilok., obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 346, and obl. case sign of prons. 2. and 3. sg., cf. pp. 379, 384.
- key, xey—elem. of numeral 'one' in Pang. and Nab. respectively, cf. p. 345.
- ki—in Bik., obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 346, and obl. case sign in pers. inter., cf. p. 361.—probably a modification of ka_2 ; not identical with Pang. ki, 2. pl., which seems to be a modification of ka_1 , cf. p. 375.
- king—in Pamp., obl. of def. art. and obl. case sign of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 343 f., 361.
- ko—root part., 1. sg., cf. p. 368.—ko, 2. pl. does not belong here, being probably a modification of ka_1 , cf. p. 375.
- kua—a noun meaning 'possession' used in Iban. in the obl. case sign takkua, and in Ilok. in the obl. of the prons. 3. sg. and pl., cf. p. 384.
- la-root part., 3. pl., ef. da.
- le, l—gen. case signs in Mag. pers. prons., cf. pp. 372, 373, 378; elem. of Mag. case sign leka, cf. p. 384, and of sale, sal.
- ma-dem. root part., cf. p. 353.
- mey-prefix of Ilok. numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.
- mi-root part., 1. exc. pl., cf. p. 369.
- mo-root part., 2. sg., cf. p. 376.
- n,-1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) final elem. in def. art., cf. p. 341 ff.; in pers. art., cf. p. 346; in the dems., cf. p. 357; perhaps

- in prons. 3. pl. in Mag. and Bag., cf. p. 382 (bis). 3) between prefix and root part. in the gen. of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356; in indiv. inters. in Pang. and Nab., cf. p. 364; in the elems. an_1 , in_1 , un_1 . 4) in case signs kan, ken.
- n₂—gen. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in dems., cf. pp. 353, 354; in Iban. indiv. inter., cf. p. 363; in prons. 1. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 383, 385; and in all probability in Bat. nu.
- na₁—1) lig., cf. p. 338. 2) gen. of def. art., cf. p. 342. 3) root elem. of gen. forms nan, nang, ka-nan, and perhaps of ne (na + i) and nen (na + i + n) of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 346; and of nay in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348, 4) final elem. of Tag. inc. art., cf. p. 347. 5) dem. root part., cf. p. 353, and root part., 3. sg., cf. p. 381. 6) gen. case sign of Pang. dems., cf. p. 356, and of Mag. prons., 1. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 373, 385. 7) final elem. of inter. antuna, cf. p. 362. 8) in kana.
- na₂—in Bik. and Ceb, gen. and obl. of inc. art. and gen. case sign of pl. of pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361; and final elem. of inc. art., cf. p. 348.
- ne—1) gen. of def. and pers. arts in Nab., cf. pp. 343, 346. 2) gen. of pron. 3 sg. in Pamp., cf. p. 381. 3) elem. of Pang. gen. of pers. art. nen, cf. p. 346.
- neng-gen. case sign of pron. 2. sg. in Mag., cf. p. 378.
- ni,—1) gen. of pers. art., cf. p. 346. 2) gen. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 347 f.; in dems., cf. pp. 353, 354; in the pers. inter. in Tag., Sam.-Ley., Bik., Pamp., and Iban., cf. pp. 360, 361; in prons. 1. and 2. pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 373, 377, 378. 3) obl. case sign in Ceb. dems., cf. p. 353, and in Iban. prons. 1. and 2. pers. 4) root element of gen. forms nin, ning of def. art., cf. p. 343. 5) final elem. in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348. 6) in kani.
- ni₂—dem. root part., cf. p. 352, and perhaps root part. of Mag. nin, cf. p. 380.
- ni_s —elem. of Iban. inters. = no_1 , cf. pp. 360, 362.
- n(i)—gen. case sign, may be n_1 or ni_1 , in prons. 2. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 377, 378, 383, 385.
- ning—in Pamp., gen. of def. art. and gen. case sign of indiv. inter., cf. pp. 340, 361.

- no,-inter. root part., cf. p. 359 f.
- no₂—root part., 2. pers., cf. p. 376.—Pamp. gen. no, 3. sg., does not belong here, being a modification of na₁, cf. p. 387.
- nu—in nu, ka-nu of def. art. in Bat. and Mag., cf. p. 342 ff.
- ng—1) lig., cf. p. 338.
 2) final elem. in forms of def. art., cf.
 p. 341 ff.; in case signs identical with def. art. in Pamp. indiv. inter., cf. p. 361.
 3) in Mag. ne-ng-ka, cf. p. 377.

ng̃a—lig., cf. p. 338.

- on, un—suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1 pers. (= in_s and en_s), cf. pp. 372, 373.
- pa,—obl. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343.
- pa₂—perhaps inter. root part. in Pang. and Nab. pers. inter., cf. p. 362.
- ra-root part., 3. pl., cf. da.
- ri = di intervocalic.
- ro-final elem. of numeral 'one' in Bik., cf. p. 345.
- s,—1) obl. case sign in the articular forms sin, sun, cf. pp. 343, 344, 346; in the signs of indef. obj. sin, sing, cf. p. 345; in the dems., cf. pp. 353, 354. 2) gen. and obl. case sign in prons. 1. and 2. pers. in Bik., cf. pp. 371, 372, 377, 378.
- s,—nom. case sign in Ceb. sini, cf. p. 354 (= s_1).
- s₃—nom. case sign in inc. art. sa in Ceb, Bik., and sanday in Hil., cf. p. 348; in pers. prons. 3. pl., Bat. sa (?), Hil. and Har. sanda, Bik. sinda, cf. pp. 381, 383, 384; and in prons. 1. sg., cf. p. 371.
- sa₁—1) obl. and gen. cf def. art., cf. pp. 342, 343. 2) root elem. of forms san, sang of def. art., cf. p. 343. 3) obl. case sign in dems., cf. p. 354; in pers. inter. in Tag., Ceb., and Sam.-Ley., cf. p. 358; in pronouns of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 373, 376 f., 378 f., 383, 385 f. 4) elem. of Mag. case sign sale, sal.
- sa₂—1) root elem. in Pang. def. art., nom. sg. say. 2) nom. case sign in pl. of def. art., and in incl. art. in Pang., cf. pp. 342, 348; in dems. in Pang. and Nab., cf. pp. 356, 357; and perhaps in the Nab. pers. inter., cf. p. 362.
- sa₃—root part. of numeral 'one,' cf. p. 345.
- sa₄—inter. root part., cf. p. 361.
- sa.—1) nom. of inc. art. in Ceb. and Bik., and of pron. 3. pl. in Bat., cf. pp. 348, 381. 2) in Bik., nom. case sign of inc. art. and of pl. pers. inter., cf. pp. 348, 361. 3) final elem. of inc. art., cf. p. 348.

- sa,—nom. case sign in Ceb. sa-ini, cf. p. 354 (= sa_1).
- sa,—obl. of pron. 3. sg. in Iban., cf. p. 381.
- sale, sal—case sign in Mag. pers. prons., cf. pp. 371 f., 377, 383.
- san—in Sam.-Ley. only; 1) gen. of def. art. 2) obl. case sign in pers. inter. Cf. pp. 343, 364.
- sang—in Hil. only; 1) gen. of def. art. 2) obl. case signs in prons. 3. sg. and pl. Cf. pp. 343, 385.
- se,—case sign in Mag. pers. prons., cf. references under sale.
- se₂—initial elem. of pers. inter. in Nab., cf. p. 362.
- si—1) nom. of pers. art., cf. p. 346.
 2) nom. of def. art. and elem. of gen. nin-si in Bik., cf. pp. 341, 343.
 3) nom. case sign in inc. art., cf. p. 348; in pers. inter. in Tag., Hil., Sam.-Ley., Bik., Pang., Ilok., Iban., and Sulu, cf. pp. 360, 361, 362, 364; in prons. of all three persons, cf. pp. 371, 372, 377, 378, 383, 384 f.
 4) initial elem. of sikan, obl. of pers. art. in Nab., cf. p. 346.
 5) final elem. in Hil. inc. art., cf. p. 348.
 6) elem. of case sign sika, sik.
- sin—1) gen. of def. art. in Sulu, cf. p. 343. 2) sign of indef. object, and obl. case sign of pers. inter. in Sam.-Ley., cf. pp. 345, 364.
- sika, sik—nom. case sign in Pang. and Nab. prons. 1. and 3. pers., cf. pp. 371, 372, 383, 384.
- so, su—1) nom. of def. art., cf. p. 341. 2) in form tu in Iban., as sign of indef. obj., cf. p. 345. 3) root part., 3. sg. in Ilok., cf. p. 381. 4) initial elem. of Nab. dems. suta, suta, cf. p. 357. 5) nom. case sign in Pang. dems., cf. p. 356.
- t—in Iban. only; equivalent to s_1 , cf. p. 333: obl. case sign in Iban. dems. and indiv. inter., cf. pp. 354, 363.
- ta₁—dem. root part., cf. p. 353, and elem. of Har. tana, cf. p. 381.
- ta₂—root part., 1. sg. pl., and du., cf. pp. 368, 369 ff.
- ta,—in Iban. only; equivalent to sa, cf. p. 333. 1) obl. of def. and pers. arts., cf. pp. 343, 347. 2) elem. of obl. case signs takka, takkua.
- ta_4 —gen. and obl. of def. art. in Bag., cf. p. 343; probably not identical with ta_s .
- takka—in Iban. only; obl. case sign in pl. of dems., cf. pp. 354, 356 f.
- takkua—in Iban only; 1) obl. of pers. art., cf. p. 347. 2) obl. case sign in pers. and inc. arts., cf. pp. 347, 348; in pl. of dems., cf. p. 356 f.; and in pers. inter., cf. p. 361.

- ti—root part of def. art. in Ilok., cf. p. 341, and of Pamp. dem. iti, cf. p. 353.—Pang. ti, gen. 1. inc. pl., does not belong here, being probably a modification of ta, cf. p. 387.
- to—1) dem. root part., cf. p. 352. 2) root part., 3. sg., in Pang. and Nab., cf. p. 381. 3) prefix of gen. sg. in Pang. dems., cf. p. 356. 4) elem. of inters. anto, antuna, cf. p. 362.
- tu—sign of indef. obj. in Iban. = so, su, cf. p. 345.
- u—1) root part. of def. art. in Bat. and perhaps in Nab. sun, cf. pp. 341, 342, 344. 2) articular elem. in Bis. numeral usa, cf. p. 345; in the dem. stems uri, ura, cf. p. 354; and perhaps in the Pang. inter. stem opa, cf. p. 362, and the Sulu inter. uno, cf. p. 361. 3) elem. of un₁.
- uen—suffix of gen. and obl. forms, prons. 1. pers. (= in_s and on, un), cf. p. 369.
- un,—articular elem. in Ceb. inter. unsa, cf. p. 361.
- un_2 —cf. on, un.
- y—cf. i_1 .
- ya₁—1) lig. in Pang., cf. p. 338. 2) nom. of def. art. in Har., cf. p. 341. 3) dem. root part., cf. p. 352 f. 4) root part., 3. sg., cf. p. 380 f. 4) root elem. of Bag. def. art. yan, cf. p. 341, and in Iban. dem. suffix ye, cf. p. 352, 357. 5) final elem. of Ilok. ania, cf. p. 363.
- ya,—suffix of prons. 1. pers. in Bik., cf. pp. 368, 369, 371. vo—root part., 2. pers., cf. p. 376.